

**THE ENCYCLOPAEDIA
BRITANNICA, OR
DICTIONARY OF ARTS,
SCIENCES, AND
GENERAL LITERATURE**





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Reign of George III. the British West India islands, and prohibiting them from carrying on the fishery at Newfoundland. The reasons alleged for this proceeding were in substance the same with those for the others; and indeed both parties had now so much exhausted their arguments, that very little new matter remained for either. Every step taken by ministry, and every proposal made by them, however, produced a violent debate; and though they constantly gained the victory, it was not without the mortification of hearing their principles and conduct reprobated in the most obprobrious manner. In the present instance the bill was carried by a very large majority; but a petition against it was quickly presented by the London merchants concerned in the American trade, setting forth the danger which would accrue to the fisheries of Great Britain from such a prohibition. From the evidence produced in support of this petition, it appeared that, ten years before, the American fisheries had been in such a flourishing state, that the four provinces of New England alone employed nearly forty-six thousand tons of shipping and six thousand seamen; and that the produce of the fisheries in the foreign markets had amounted, in the year 1764, to upwards of £320,000. Since that time, however, they had greatly increased; and what rendered them particularly valuable was, that all the materials used in them, excepting only the timber for building the vessels, and the salt for curing the fish, were purchased in Britain, and the net proceeds of the trade were also remitted thither. Some other considerations were likewise urged as reasons against this bill, particularly the commercial concerns of New England with the city of London, to which alone the colony stood indebted in nearly a million sterling, and the bad consequences of it to the people of Nantucket, who, though inhabiting a barren island off the coast of New England, about fifteen miles in length and three in breadth, containing six thousand inhabitants, kept one hundred and thirty vessels constantly employed in the whale fishery, which they carried on in the north seas, to the coasts of Africa and Brazil, and even as far as the Falkland Islands. The case of Nantucket, in fact, was so strong that the administration were obliged to relax a little, and, of their own accord, afforded this industrious people the relief which they had such just reason to expect. The bill was debated with great animosity in the House of Peers, and produced a remarkable protest, in which the measures of government were spoken of with great severity.

CHAP. XIII.

REIGN OF GEORGE III.—AMERICAN WAR.

Force to be sent to America.—Lord North's conciliatory Bill.—Ineffectual endeavours of the West India Planters.—Violence of both parties.—Resignation of Lord Effingham and others.—Conduct of London and Dublin.—Distress of the Country.—Last petition of Congress rejected.—Whigs and Tories.—Their mutual recriminations.—Misfortunes of the Newfoundland fleet.—Difficulty of procuring succours.—France and Holland espouse the American cause.—Hessian auxiliaries.—Supplies for the garrison of Boston destroyed or taken.—Party animosities.—Debates in Parliament.—Military operations.—The cause of America believed to be desperate.—Expense of the war.—Surrender of Burgoyne at Saratoga.—Conduct of Ministers.—The French resolve to assist America.—Treaty between France and America.—Charges against administration.—Invasion threatened by the French.—Exploits of D'Estaing in the West Indies.—Encounter with Admiral Byrnes.—State of the Contest in America and the West Indies.—Condition of the British Navy.—Kempel's engagement with the French fleet.—Subsequent discussions, and trial of the Admiral.—His acquittal.—Board of Admiralty attacked.—Resignations of Admirals Keppel, Howe, and others.—Inquiry concerning the conduct of the American war.—General Burgoyne's affair.—Accession of Spain to the confederacy against Britain.—Measures for the defence of the

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nation.—Reduction of some British settlements in Africa.—Unsuccessful attempts on Jersey.—Threatened invasion of Great Britain.—Appearance of the combined fleets of France and Spain in the Channel.—Unpopularity of the American war.—Ministry become obnoxious to the people.—Schemes of economy rejected.—Unconstitutional influence of Ministers.—Mr Burke's plan of economy.—Defeat of the Ministry on Mr Dunning's celebrated motion, 4th April 1780.—They recover a majority in the House.—Catholic Relief Bill.—Disturbances connected with it in Scotland.—Conduct of the mob in Edinburgh.—The Protestant Association.—Terrible riots in London.—Lord George Gordon committed to the Tower.—Power of the Ministry confirmed.—Important debate on the employment of military force in cases of disturbance.—Operations of the war.—Naval successes.—Armed neutrality.—Origin of the war with Holland.—Battle off the Doggerbank.—Efforts in London.—Events of the year 1781.—Fertinacity of Ministers.—King's Speech.—Debates on the Address.—Motions against the American war.—New plan proposed by Lord North.—Debates.—Army Estimates.—Elevation of Lord George Germaine to the Peers, and discussion consequent thereon.—Protest.—Motions for an Address against the American war rejected.—One at length carried and presented to the King.—Motion against the Ministry, who intimate their intention to resign.—Naval and Military operations of 1782.—Rodney's victory on the 12th of April.—Results of this glorious achievement.—Spanish armament destroyed before Gibraltar, and the siege raised.—Change of Ministry.—Rockingham Administration.—Negotiations for Peace.—Sudden death of the Marquis of Rockingham.—He is succeeded by Lord Shelburne.—Conduct of that Minister.—Provisional treaty with America.—Peace concluded with France, Spain, and Holland.—Estimate of the results of the contest.—Narrative of less important events.

The final resolution to reduce the colonies by force being now taken, it became necessary to make proper preparations for the purpose; and in this the conduct of administration was little less censured than in other respects. As the opinion that the Americans were naturally timid, and incapable of becoming soldiers, prevailed greatly at this time, a force of a thousand men was judged sufficient to reduce the province of New England to obedience. The project of ministers was vehemently opposed by the minority. They insisted that the force was totally inadequate, and only calculated to produce expense to no purpose. The first impression, they very justly observed, ought, if possible, to be decisive; and in order to render it so, it was necessary to send such a fleet and army as might insure the confidence of the public, and be certainly capable of surmounting all obstacles. Many of the friends of administration were of the same sentiments; and the only reason assigned for acting otherwise was founded on a hope that the Americans would, upon more mature consideration, desist from their opposition. That they might the more readily be induced to this submission, Lord North's conciliatory proposition was formed, by which it was enacted, that when the governor, council, and assembly of any of the colonies, should propose to make a provision for the common defence, and when such provision should be approved of by the king in parliament, the levying or imposing of taxes on that colony should then be forbore; those duties excepted which it might be expedient to impose for the regulation of commerce, and the net produce of which should be carried to the account of the colony where it had been raised. But this proposal, though highly extolled by the friends of administration, was no less reprobated by the minority than the others had been. Nevertheless, after a lengthened debate, the question was carried in favour of administration by a majority of more than three to one.

A similar fate attended a petition to the throne from the island of Jamaica. Instead of relaxing any thing of their severity, the ministry now included the southern colonies in the restrictions imposed on New England. Still, however, the petitioners were indefatigable in their endeavours.

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vours to be heard. The West India merchants and planters seconded their last petition by entering into a lengthened detail of circumstances relating to the British islands in that part of the world. This affair was conducted by Mr Glover, a gentleman celebrated for his literary talents and commercial knowledge. From his investigations it appeared that, exclusive of the intrinsic worth of the islands themselves, their stock in trade and other property amounted to no less than sixty millions; that the exportation to Britain had of late been near two hundred thousand hogsheds and puncheons of sugar and rum, amounting to no less than four millions in value; and that the direct revenue arising from this source was seven hundred thousand pounds, besides that which accrued from the collateral branches depending upon it. These arguments, however, were urged in vain. Conciliatory proposals were made by Mr Burke and Mr Hartley, but they were rejected by great majorities, and instead of serving the cause they were meant to promote, had the very opposite effect. A dread was entertained of the consequences which might ensue from the republican opinions now so prevalent in the colonies; and all partiality towards them was looked upon in so criminal a light, that their opponents became deaf, on many occasions, to the voice of reason and humanity when urged in their behalf. On the other hand, the favourers of America, urged on by a furious zeal, if not resentment, against those whom they looked upon as the promoters of arbitrary measures, erred equally in their opposition to ministry. And this violence of party spirit appeared not only among the people at large, but broke forth with the utmost fury in parliament, where the debates often resembled the railings of Billingsgate more than the deliberations of the representative assembly of a great and powerful nation.

In this temper of mind the state of affairs was scarcely ever truly represented by either party. Government continued to enact new laws, now in vain, against the Americans; whilst their antagonists opposed them in a manner so little different from that which has been already related, that any further account of the debates would be equally tedious and unnecessary. Other petitions were also presented, and treated with neglect. The union of the colonists, and their preparations for war, were described by the ministerial party as the mere commotions of a headstrong mob, but represented by the opposition as an association of an injured and virtuous people, who were about to found a mighty empire in the west, whilst Britain was doomed to sink into utter disgrace and contempt by their secession. In the same way, the event of the skirmish at Lexington, where the first blood flowed in the contest, was magnified by the one party into a disgraceful defeat, and treated by the other as a trifling affair, to which no regard whatever ought to be paid, far less any inference drawn as to the fate of the war. The battle of Bunkers' Hill, and all the transactions of the year 1775, were in like manner exaggerated by both parties, though in opposite directions; and the consequence of these misrepresentations was to fan the flame of mutual resentment.

Whilst these altercations continued to agitate the minds of the superior classes of people in Britain, the middle and lower ranks remained in a kind of indifference, or rather were opposed to the proceedings of ministry. This opposition, indeed, had no influence on the councils of the nation, but in other respects it proved exceedingly troublesome. The levies were obstructed, and the recruiting service was never known to go on so heavily; numbers of that description of persons who usually fill the ranks of the army not only refusing the usual offers, but even reproaching loudly the cause in which they were solicited to engage. Several officers of high rank also showed a dis-

inclination to the service. Lord Effingham, who had distinguished himself by his opposition to the ministerial measures, resigned the command of his regiment rather than fight against the cause which he had so warmly espoused; and his example was followed by that of several other officers. For this step Lord Effingham received the thanks of the cities of London and Dublin, both of which were extremely averse to hostilities with America; and the former, indeed, could scarcely restrain itself within any bounds of moderation. After the skirmish at Lexington, the city framed a remonstrance and petition, animadverting severely on the ministry and parliament; and it was not without the greatest difficulty that the more moderate party procured a counter-petition, couched in less reprehensible terms.

In the mean time serious inconveniences, arising from the stoppage of trade, began to be felt in different parts of the nation. The suspension of the sale and purchase of negro slaves in the West Indies and in North America, and the prohibition against exporting arms and gunpowder, had seriously impeded the trade of Bristol and Liverpool with Africa; in consequence of which a great number of ships which had formerly sailed from these ports were laid up, and nearly three thousand sailors belonging to Liverpool were thrown out of employment. These distresses, however, made no impression on administration; who having once laid it down as a maxim, that the subjection of America was the greatest political good that could happen to Britain, were, in a conformity with their own principles, obliged to consider every disaster that might occur during the prosecution of this object as a temporary inconvenience, which ought not to be put in comparison with the execution of so great and necessary a design. But whatever might be the views of administration in this respect, it was far otherwise with the generality of the nation. They felt severely the present inconveniences; whilst the probable subjugation of America afforded no solid reason to hope for an equivalent or compensation. It was with the utmost satisfaction, therefore, that they received the news of Mr Penn's arrival in 1775, with another petition from the congress, to be presented to the king in the first instance, and then given to the public. But their expectations were speedily disappointed. The petition was delivered to Lord Dartmouth on the first of September, and in three days afterwards it was stated that no answer would be given to it. This laconic reply excited no small surprise, more especially as the language of the petition was respectful, and expressed a strong desire for peace and reconciliation; and hence it could only be considered as a formal and deliberate, if not insulting, renunciation of all friendly intercourse with the colonies.

The rejection of this petition served to inflame, more than ever, the mutual resentment of the adverse parties. The obsolete distinction of Whig and Tory was now revived, with such animosity, that Britain itself, as well as America, seemed in danger of becoming the theatre of war and bloodshed. The Tories were accused of promoting sanguinary addresses, misinforming the government, and circulating false representations, in order to add fuel to the flame already kindled, and produce civil war. They were also upbraided with their attachment to the Stuart family; their incessant machinations to involve the country in civil war; the dissension at home and disgrace abroad which had invariably attended their councils; and their indifference to the honour and interest of the nation, which, from the peace of Utrecht to the present time, they had ever been ready to sacrifice for the advancement of their party. On the other hand, the Tories described the Whigs as the genuine descendants and representatives of the republican incendiaries who, in the last century, had overturned the

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The violence of these bickerings, however, was somewhat allayed by serious commercial misfortunes, which occurred about this time, and added greatly to the difficulties with which the government had to contend. During the last session of parliament, it had been affirmed that the bill for depriving the people of New England of the benefits of the Newfoundland fishery would redound to the interest of Great Britain, by throwing into her hands the profits which were formerly divided with the colonies. But this prediction was belied by the event. The number of ships fitted out this year was scarcely greater than usual, and the congress had prohibited them from being supplied with provisions; so that not only those on board the ships, but even the inhabitants on the island of Newfoundland itself, were in danger of perishing from want. Many of the ships, therefore, were obliged to go in quest of provisions instead of prosecuting the employment on which they had been sent; and, on the whole, instead of any increase, the profits of the fishery suffered this year a diminution of near £500,000. Nor was this all. A storm of unprecedented violence occurred in these latitudes during the fishing season; the sea rose fully thirty feet above its ordinary level, and with such rapidity, that no time was allowed for avoiding its fury: upwards of seven hundred fishing boats perished; and several ships foundered, with their whole crews. Nor was the devastation confined to the sea; for the waters broke in upon the land and occasioned prodigious loss and destruction. By these misfortunes, the general stagnation of commerce, and the little success which had hitherto attended the British arms, the mercantile portion of the nation was plunged in despair, and petitions were poured in from all quarters.

But ministers had determined on their course; and the only question now considered was, how it might be most effectually put in execution. For this purpose, application was made to the petty states of Germany, which were wont to hire out their forces, and had frequently sent auxiliaries to Britain in former cases of exigency. But the scheme was fraught with difficulties, owing to the distance of the scene of contest, and the danger of mercenaries deserting a cause in which they had no manner of concern. The princes were also alarmed at the probability of losing for ever so many of their subjects; whilst the latter were not less startled at the prospect of being transported across the ocean into a new world, there to be exposed to all the miseries of war, with very little hope of ever again beholding their native country. Other resources were however devised, such as calling in the assistance of the Hessians, and obtaining from Holland the body of Scottish troops which had been so long in their service. But in these views administration were in a great measure disappointed. All the states of Europe looked upon Britain with an invidious eye; particularly Holland and France, the two powers who had most reason to hope for advantage from the quarrel. In Holland a very strong party contended warmly for the American interest; pamphlets were daily published at

Amsterdam in justification of the colonies, whose case was compared to that of the Netherlands in former times; and the colonists were exhorted to persevere in their claims against the pretensions of Britain, which was represented as insatiably covetous of wealth and power; as domineering and intolerable, especially since her successes in the war of 1755; and as arrogating if not exercising an absolute sovereignty over the seas. But although these powers thus early expressed their hostile disposition towards Britain, it was otherwise with the Princes of Hesse and Brunswick, by whom a considerable number of troops was furnished; and, that as many British forces as possible might be employed, large draughts were made from the garrisons of Gibraltar and Minorca, which were supplied with an equal number of men from the electorate of Hanover. The garrison of Boston was liberally furnished with all sorts of necessaries; and although the expenditure already began to occasion considerable alarm, and to raise a suspicion that even the treasures of Britain would not be able to defray the charges of the war, yet some countervailing advantages were derived from this profusion; for the price of every thing was augmented, including that of shipping; and although the profits realized by contractors and their numerous friends occasioned complaints, great benefit accrued to multitudes employed in the various branches of the public service. Misfortune, however, seemed to attend every scheme in which Britain engaged, although in the present case it must, in part at least, be ascribed to mismanagement. The sailing of the transports for Boston was delayed till the proper season was lost. They remained for a long time wind-bound; and when at length they were enabled to weigh anchor, they met with such stormy weather that they were tossed about in the Channel till most of the live stock which they had on board perished. Nor did the misfortunes of the convoy end here. After clearing the coast of England, their progress was retarded by a continuance of foul weather; they were driven by the periodical winds from the coast of America; and while some made for the West Indies, others were captured by American privateers, and only a very few reached Boston, with their cargoes so much damaged as to be of little or no use whatever.

With respect to the parliamentary proceedings of this period little can be said, except that every measure of administration, whether right or wrong, was keenly opposed. The employment of foreign troops, and the admitting of them into the fortresses of Gibraltar and Minorca, were severely censured, as being contrary to the bill of rights. But the administration contended that this bill only forbade the introduction of a foreign military power into the kingdom during peace, that the times however were not peaceable, and that the introduction of the troops was evidently with a view to quell a rebellion. The force designed for the conquest of America was then declared to be inadequate to the purpose; but it was replied, on the part of ministry, that the design was to conciliate, not to conquer; that twenty-five thousand men were sufficient to strike terror; and that though this should not instantly be produced, conciliatory offers would still be held out after every blow that was struck.

In the mean time the Americans, sensible of the dangerous situation in which they stood, exerted themselves to the utmost to dislodge the British troops from Boston, which they at length accomplished in March 1776. They then proceeded to put their towns in a state of defence, and repulsed Sir Peter Parker at Charlestown; but they did not exert themselves with equal spirit in the defence of New York, where, besides losing the town, they sustained such a defeat as seemed to threaten their affairs with total ruin. This in fact was the view taken of their situation by the

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generality of the people in Britain. The successful campaign of 1776 was looked upon as so decisive, that little room remained for supposing the Americans capable of ever retrieving their affairs. Opposition were much embarrassed, being almost reduced to the single argument about the interference of foreign powers; whilst the obstinacy of the Americans in refusing the offers of Lord Howe, even at the moment of their greatest depression, seemed a very bad omen. The ministry, however, now became so powerful, that whatever they proposed was immediately carried. The number of seamen for 1777 was augmented to forty-five thousand, and upwards of five millions were voted for the expense of the navy, and for discharging its debt. The expenses of the land service amounted to nearly three millions, besides the extraordinary of the former year, which exceeded one million two hundred thousand pounds; and though this vast provision was the subject of great complaint and animadversion, the power of ministry silenced all opposition.

But however administration might now triumph, their exultation was of short continuance. The misfortune of General Burgoyne at Saratoga threw the whole nation into a kind of despair, and reduced the ministry to the utmost perplexity. The great difficulty now was to contrive means for raising a sufficient number of forces to carry on the war; but from this embarrassment they extricated themselves by encouraging levies for government service by cities and private persons; and as the design was kept a profound secret before the Christmas recess, they were not disturbed by the clamours of opposition. The recess was purposely extended in order to give time for the scheme to take effect; and before parliament met again it was actually accomplished, so that ministers could once more face their opponents without any fear.

Another and more weighty consideration, however, now occurred. The European states in general had long beheld the grandeur of Britain with an envious eye. The news of the disaster at Saratoga was therefore received by them with the same undisguised exultation as the intelligence of the defeat of Charles XII. at Pultowa was by the powers whom he had so long overawed. Of these the French, for obvious reasons, were the most active in supporting the insurgent Americans. Numbers of the young nobility were eager to signalize themselves in the American cause; and among the rest the Marquis de la Fayette, a young nobleman of high rank and fortune, occupied a conspicuous place. Impelled by an enthusiastic ardour in favour of the American cause, he purchased a vessel, loaded her with military stores, and sailed with several of his friends to America, where he offered his services to congress; and meeting with a most gracious reception, he was invested with a command, in which he lost no opportunity of distinguishing himself. Besides this nobleman, several other officers from France and Germany actually entered the American service, and by their military talents greatly contributed to the exertions which the colonies were afterwards enabled to make. This assistance, however, would have been but trifling, had not the French court also interested itself in their behalf; and about the time when the news of General Burgoyne's disaster arrived in Britain, a treaty was on foot between the French court and the United States of America. Even before this time France had shown such a partiality towards the Americans, as might plainly have indicated a design of ultimately assisting them in their national capacity. The encouragement given to the American privateers in all the ports of France had produced strong remonstrances on the part of Britain; and an order was at length demanded that all these privateers with their prizes should depart the kingdom. With this the French court found it neces-

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sary at that time to comply, lest reprisals should be made by capturing their whole Newfoundland fleet then engaged in the fishery. But so many delays were occasioned on various pretences, that not a single vessel was dismissed from any of their ports; and so far were the French court from entertaining any design of this kind, that in the month of July 1777 the whole body of merchants throughout the kingdom were assured by government that they might depend on protection for their trade with America. Meanwhile the greatest preparations for war were made throughout the whole kingdom of France; and, in fact, the most judicious politicians were of opinion that a rupture with that power would have immediately followed the commencement of hostilities with America. But, whatever might have been the motives of the British ministry, it is certain, that in defiance alike of probability, and of the acrimonious censures of opposition, they continued to pretend ignorance of any hostile intentions upon the part of France, until that country of its own accord thought proper to announce them. This was done by a formal notification to the court of Britain in the month of March 1778, couched in the most insolent terms. In this declaration it was announced, not only that a treaty of friendship and commerce had been concluded betwixt France and America, but Britain was insulted by being told that America was actually in possession of independence, as if the former had already exerted her utmost efforts without being able to reduce them. A treaty was also made of having entered into no commercial stipulations in favour of France exclusive of Britain. Nothing, therefore, could be more offensive than this notification; and though it could not decently be said, on the part of the French monarch, that he wished for war, yet his pacific intentions were conveyed in such haughty terms, that the whole could only be considered as a declaration of that hostility which he pretended a desire to avoid.

Accordingly both parties now united in opinion that a war with France was unavoidable; but they were not for that reason any further advanced towards a reconciliation. It must be owned, indeed, that the minority had received great provocation. They had from the beginning reproached the American war, and prognosticated its bad success. In this they had been overruled, and the character of the Americans represented in such a manner as almost to preclude the notion of their being able to resist. They had resisted, however, and by destroying or taking prisoners a whole army, had verified the predictions which had so often been treated with ridicule. The same party had frequently insisted in the most earnest manner for some kind of concession towards America; but this had constantly been refused with an obstinacy equally unparallelled and inveterate. They now, however, saw the very concessions offered to America after the defeat of Burgoyne, which, if granted in time, would have prevented all the mischief that had happened. Add to this, that every inquiry into the measures of government had been frustrated; that a motion on the state of the nation, which could not be absolutely rejected, was rendered ineffectual by delays and evasion; and that the country was involved in war with a nation well provided for all emergencies, whilst we had supinely suffered them to go on without making the least effort to put ourselves in a proper state of defence. For these reasons opposition insisted that the present ministry ought no longer to be intrusted with the management of public affairs. An acknowledgment of the independence of America was now generally supposed to be the only rational step that could be taken, as it might at present be done with a good grace, and we should unavoidably be obliged to take it at last whether we would or not.

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Notwithstanding the vehemence of these disputes, however, great courage and steadiness were manifested by the calm and deliberate portion of the nation. The French attempted to excite a general panic by threatening an invasion, which was evidently impracticable, until they had first obtained the superiority at sea; yet as multitudes in the country were apt to be terrified by the bare mention of a French invasion, orders were issued to call out and embody the militia, which was then composed of men in every respect as well exercised and disciplined as any regular troops. It was complained, however, that a French squadron of twelve ships of the line had sailed from Toulon without any obstruction, under the command of the Count d'Estaing. The most grievous apprehensions were entertained from the great inferiority of Lord Howe's naval force; a circumstance which might expose his fleet to a total defeat, and the whole convoy of transports to be taken or destroyed. But whatever might have been the probabilities of the case, the fortune or conduct of this commander were such, that none of the anticipated dangers occurred. Addresses were, however, moved for recalling the fleets and armies from America, in order to station them in places where they might contribute most effectually to the defence of the kingdom; but this was opposed by administration, and even by some of the most popular members of opposition, including Lord Chatham and the Earl of Shelburne.

The operations of the French in America, with the various success of the war, will be more fully related under the head of UNITED STATES. It is sufficient here to state that D'Estaing having equally failed in his attempt on the British fleet at New York, and in assisting the allies of France in their attempt on Rhode Island, sailed for the West Indies, where he attacked the island of St Lucia; but meeting with a repulse, he proceeded to Grenada, which he reduced, while a body of troops dispatched by him also took the island of St Vincent. By this time the French admiral had been powerfully reinforced, so that his fleet consisted of twenty-six sail of the line and twelve frigates. Whilst he was employed at Grenada, Admiral Byron, with the British squadron, accompanied the homeward-bound West India fleet till it was out of danger, and then sailed with a body of troops under General Grant for the recovery of St Vincent; but before reaching that island, certain intelligence was received of the descent made on Grenada. Byron then steered directly for that island, where, without hesitation, he encountered the French fleet, notwithstanding its great superiority. At this time the French squadron amounted to twenty-seven sail of the line and seven frigates; whilst that of Britain consisted only of twenty-one line-of-battle ships and one frigate. The British admirals, Byron and Barrington, endeavoured to bring the enemy to a close engagement; but this was as studiously avoided by D'Estaing; and such was the dexterity and circumspection with which he acted, that it was only during the transient movements occasioned by the wind and weather that some of the British ships could close in with their antagonists. But when these occurred, the encounter became so unequal, that the British ships were terribly shattered. For some time Captains Collingwood, Edwards, and Cornwallis, stood the fire of the whole French fleet; and Captain Fanshawe of the Monmouth, a sixty-four gun ship, singly threw himself in the way of the enemy's van to stop them. Several of the British ships forced their way to the very mouth of St George's harbour in Grenada; but finding it in the hands of the French, an end was put to the action; nor did the latter care to renew it, although the British ships had suffered much from the greatly superior force to which they had been exposed.

D'Estaing having now received fresh reinforcements,

set sail for the continent of America, after conveying the homeward-bound fleet of French merchantmen on their George III. return from the West India islands. He made an attempt on the town of Savannah, but was repulsed with great loss; and the result was, that the fears which had been excited by the superiority of the French in the West Indian seas were effectually dissipated. The islands of Dominica, St Vincent, and Grenada, were indeed lost, the first being taken by the Marquis de Bouillé, governor of Martinico, and the last two by D'Estaing, as already stated; but these successes were balanced by the failure of the French commander in every other enterprise, by his disaster at the Savannah, and by the acquisition of St Lucia, which was taken in the year 1778 by Admiral Barrington and Generals Prescott and Meadows. In other parts of the West Indian seas also the honour of the British arms was very effectually supported by the bravery and vigilance of the commanders on that station. Admiral Hyde Parker, assisted by Admiral Rowley, kept the enemy in continual alarm, and intercepted the trade of the French islands in such a manner as greatly distressed them. Three large frigates dispatched by Count d'Estaing after his failure in America were taken, and a great part of a convoy seized or destroyed in sight of M. de la Motte-Piquet's squadron in the harbour of Fort Royal at Martinico, the admiral himself having narrowly escaped. He had sailed out of the harbour in order to favour the escape of the convoy already mentioned, and, having partly effected his object, withdrew; but he was so closely pursued, that he had scarcely time to shelter himself under the batteries on shore. These successes, which occurred in the years 1778, 1779, and beginning of 1780, kept the event of the war pretty much in a state of equipoise on the western seas and continent; but in the meanwhile the most unhappy dissensions prevailed in every department of the British government in Europe, and threatened to involve the nation in confusion and bloodshed.

Among other charges brought by the opposition against the ministry, that of neglecting the navy was one of the most considerable; nor indeed does it appear that the charge was altogether groundless. Without a fleet, however, it was now impossible to ward off the danger of an invasion. At this time, indeed, it was in a very weak condition; but the valour and experience of the officers seemed in some measure to compensate every deficiency. The chief command was conferred on Admiral Keppel, who had served with great reputation during the last war; whilst Admirals Sir Robert Harland and Sir Hugh Palliser, both officers of undoubted courage and capacity, acted under him. On arriving at Portsmouth, towards the end of March 1778, Admiral Keppel exerted himself so effectually, that, exclusive of those ships which it was found necessary to dispatch to the coast of North America under Admiral Byron, a fleet of twenty sail of the line was got in readiness by the beginning of June, and ten more in a very forward state of preparation. At the head of this fleet Admiral Keppel sailed from Portsmouth on the 13th of June, in order to protect the commercial shipping expected from all parts of the world, and at the same time to watch the motions of the French fleet at Brest.

When the British fleet arrived off the coast of France, two French frigates approached in order to make observations. These proved to be the *Licorne* of thirty-two, and the *Belle Poule* of twenty-six guns. A signal to give chase was instantly made, and the *Milford* frigate having come up with the *Licorne* towards the close of the day, requested the French captain to leave to under the British admiral's stern. The latter refused; but a ship of the line coming up, compelled him to obey. Next morning the *Licorne* seeming by her motions to be altering her course, a shot was

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On the 18th of June, the day following the action with the *Belle Poule*, another frigate fell in with the British fleet, and was seized by the admiral's orders, on account of the behaviour of the *Licorne*. The capture of these French frigates furnished intelligence which proved of the utmost importance, at the same time that it was highly alarming. It was ascertained that the fleet at Brest consisted of thirty-two sail of the line and twelve frigates; and this proved in every respect a most fortunate discovery, as the admiral had under his orders only twenty ships of the line and three frigates. As the superiority of the enemy was so decided, and as the consequences of a defeat would have been fatal to this country, the admiral thought himself bound in prudence to return to Portsmouth for reinforcements. He reached Spithead on the 27th of June, and remained till the arrival of the ships from the Mediterranean and the Spanish and Portuguese trade; while the summer fleet from the West Indies brought him a further supply of seamen, and enabled him to put to sea again with an addition of ten ships of the line. But still there was a deficiency of frigates, owing to the great numbers on the American station, and the necessity of manning the ships of the line in preference to all others.

In the mean time the preparations at Brest being fully completed, the French fleet put to sea on the 8th of July. It consisted of thirty-two sail of the line, besides a large number of frigates; and Count d'Orvilliers commanded in chief, while the other principal officers were Counts Duchaffault, de Guichen, and de Grasse, M. de Rochechoart and M. de la Motte-Piquet. A prince of the blood royal had also been sent to serve on board of this fleet; we mean the Duke of Chartres, son and heir to the Duke of Orleans, and first prince of the blood royal of France in the collateral line, who commanded one of the divisions in the capacity of admiral. On the 9th day of July, the British fleet sailed out of Portsmouth in three divisions; the first commanded by Sir Robert Harland, the third by Sir Hugh Palliser, and the centre by Admiral Keppel, accompanied by Admiral Campbell, an officer of great courage and merit. The French had been informed that the British fleet was greatly inferior to their own, which was true at the time when they received the information; and being yet unapprised of the reinforcement it had received, Count d'Orvilliers sailed at first in quest of it, intending to attack it while in the weak condition represented to him.

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The centre division of the British line having passed the rear-most ships of the enemy, the first care of the admiral was to renew the engagement as soon as the ships of the different fleets yet in action had got clear of each other respectively. Sir Robert Harland, with some ships of his division, had already tacked, and stood towards the French; but the remaining part of the fleet had not yet tacked, and some had dropped to leeward, and were repair-

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This action, whatever might have been the merit of the

commanders, proved a source of fatal animosity. The bulk of the nation had so long been accustomed to hear of great and glorious victories at sea, that it was supposed a kind of impossibility for a French and British fleet to encounter without the total ruin of the former. The event of the last engagement, therefore, became an object of severe criticism; and complaints were made, that, through the bad conduct of the blue division, an opportunity had been lost of gaining a complete victory over the French fleet. These complaints were quickly introduced into the public papers; and were carried on with a warmth and vehemence which threw the whole nation into a ferment. The friends of Sir Hugh Palliser, the vice-admiral of the blue, were no less violent in the defence of his conduct than his opponents were in its condemnation; whilst those who espoused the cause of the admiral manifested equal determination in accusing him of being the real cause of the escape of the French fleet, through his disobedience of the signals and orders of his commander, and by remaining at a distance with his division, instead of coming to the assistance of the rest of the fleet. An accusation of so weighty a nature alarmed Sir Hugh Palliser, who in consequence applied to Admiral Keppel for a justification of his conduct, and required of him to sign and publish a paper relative to the engagement of the 27th of July, stating, that he did not intend by his signals on the evening of that day to renew the battle then, but only to be in readiness for the next morning. The admiral rejected this demand, on which Sir Hugh Palliser published, in one of the daily papers, a variety of details concerning the engagement, reflecting severely on the conduct of the admiral, and prefacing the whole by a letter signed with his name. An attack so public, and so detrimental to his character, induced Admiral Keppel to declare to the admiral, that unless Sir Hugh Palliser explained this matter to his satisfaction, he could not, consistently with his reputation, ever again act in conjunction with that officer.

This altercation having occurred before the meeting of parliament, was of course noticed when it assembled. In the House of Peers an inquiry was demanded into the conduct of the commanders of the fleet on the 27th of July; and in the House of Commons it was urged, that as Admiral Keppel had expressed a public refusal to serve in conjunction with Sir Hugh Palliser, the cause of such a declaration ought to be investigated. Admiral Keppel and Sir Hugh Palliser, who were both present in the house upon this occasion, spoke severally on the point in question; and after a keen debate, a motion was made for an address to the crown to bring Sir Hugh Palliser to a trial for his behaviour in the late engagement with the French fleet. To this motion Sir Hugh Palliser replied, in a speech of great heat and vehemence, that he had already demanded and obtained a court-martial on Admiral Keppel, whom he now charged with having, through his misconduct, caused the failure of success in that engagement. This intelligence was received with astonishment in the house. It had been, and still continued to be the general desire of individuals of all parties, to heal the breach between these officers at a time when the services of both were so much needed; and it was therefore with deep concern that the house learned the determination which had been taken to bring Admiral Keppel to a trial. The admiral, however, conducted himself on this occasion with remarkable temper and coolness. He acquiesced without reluctance in the orders which had been given him to prepare for a trial of his conduct; and he expressed a hope, that, upon inquiry, it would be found to have been neither dishonourable to his country nor discreditable to himself.

But the conduct of the board of admiralty in admitting

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the charges against Admiral Keppel, and appointing a court-martial, was strongly censured in the house, upon the ground that it was their duty to labour with the utmost earnestness, and exert their whole official influence, to stifle an unhappy disagreement, the consequences of which might be highly detrimental to the public service, instead of promoting the dispute, by consenting to bring it to a judicial and public hearing. On the other hand, it was observed, that the admiralty could not, consistently with the impartiality which they owed to every officer of the navy, refuse to receive all matters of complaint relating to subjects in their department; that they had no right to decide on the merits of any case laid before them, but were bound to refer it to a court composed of naval officers, who were the only proper and competent judges in professional matters; that, in conformity with these principles, they left the decision of the present altercation to the gentlemen of the navy, whose honour and integrity in all instances of this kind had never been called in question, and by whose verdict every officer in that branch of the service must wish to stand or fall. The arguments upon this subject being urged with much heat and vehemence, generated uncommon animosity, and gave rise to a spirit of contention which diffused itself among all classes of society. Individuals of every rank and profession engaged in it with as much zeal as if they had been personally concerned in the issue; and the dissatisfaction that prevailed among the upper classes in the navy appeared in a memorial presented to the king by twelve of the oldest and most distinguished admirals, at the head of whom was Lord Hawke, condemning the conduct of Sir Hugh Palliser without reserve, and censuring that of the admiralty itself, as establishing a precedent pregnant with the most ruinous consequences to the naval service. The majority of those who subscribed this memorial were not officers of the highest rank and importance in the navy, but unconnected with the opposition, and attached by various motives to the court and ministry; so that their conduct in this instance must have been influenced by party considerations.

No business of consequence was discussed in either house of parliament during the trial, which began upon the 7th of January 1779, and lasted till the 11th of February ensuing. After a lengthened and minute investigation, the court-martial acquitted Admiral Keppel, in the most complete and honourable manner, of all the charges which had been brought against him; he was declared to have acted the part of a judicious, brave, and experienced officer; and the accusation was censured in the severest manner. Both houses of parliament then voted him their thanks for the eminent services he had performed; the city of London conferred on him every mark of honour and respect it could bestow; and the nation re-echoed with his praise; whilst the resentment against his accuser was so strong as to constrain him to retire wholly from public life, and to resign all his employments. But notwithstanding the high degree of national favour and esteem in which Admiral Keppel stood, he thought it prudent to withdraw from a situation in which he found himself not acceptable to those in power, and accordingly resigned his command.

The conduct of those who presided at the admiralty board now became an object of severe censure; and a number of facts were cited to prove, that for many years past they had acted in a manner highly reprehensible. The debates were uncommonly animated; and a resolution for ensuring the conduct of the admiralty was lost by a majority of only thirty-four. Administration, however, still kept their ground; and although a second attempt was made to show that the state of the navy was incommensurate with the vast sums bestowed upon it, the point

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was again lost by nearly the same majority as before. But however victorious they might be in divisions, the conduct of the admiralty was far from giving general satisfaction. Following the example of Admiral Keppel, Lord Howe declared his resolution to relinquish the service while it continued under the present system of management; and his resignation was followed by that of Sir Robert Harland, Sir John Lindsay, and several others; nay, so general had the dislike to the service now become, that no fewer than twenty captains of the first distinction proposed to go in a body to resign their commissions at once; and they were prevented doing so only by the urgent occasion there was at that time for their services.

The same feeling which led to these resignations produced a direct attack upon Lord Sandwich, then first lord of the admiralty. But though in this as in other cases the ministry were victorious, they could not prevent an inquiry into the cause of our want of success in the American war. This was insisted upon by Lord Howe and General Howe, whose conduct had been so much reflected upon, that a vindication became absolutely necessary. The inquiry was indeed singularly disagreeable to the administration, and consequently evaded as long as possible. From the evidence of Lord Cornwallis and other officers of high rank, however, it appeared that the forces sent to America were at no time sufficient to reduce it; that the Americans were almost universally unfriendly to the British cause; and that from the nature of the country, the conquest of it would be attended with great difficulties. It was also proved, that, from its great strength, the camp of the Americans on Long Island could not have been attacked with any probability of success, after their defeat in 1776, owing to the want of artillery and other necessities. In every instance, therefore, the general's conduct was shown to have been judicious and proper. But these facts being directly at variance with the view which the ministry wished to countenance, counter-evidence was produced, in order to invalidate the testimony of the respectable witnesses above mentioned, and Major-general Robertson, and Mr Joseph Galloway, an American gentleman, were examined. According to the evidence of Mr Galloway especially, the conduct of General Howe had not been unexceptionable; the greater part of the Americans were friendly to the cause of Britain; the country was not so full of obstructions as had been represented; the woods and forests formed no obstruction to the marching of armies in as many columns as they pleased; and soldiers might carry provisions for nineteen days on their backs. Upon such extravagant assertions, proceeding undoubtedly from ignorance, no stress whatever could be laid; yet they fully answered the purpose of the ministry at this time, namely procrastination, and preventing the disagreeable truths elicited in the course of the inquiry from striking the minds of the public too forcibly.

The event of this inquiry, however, encouraged General Burgoyne to insist for an examination of his conduct, which indeed had been so unmercifully censured, that even the ministers began to think he had suffered too much, and that he ought to be allowed to vindicate himself. He was accordingly permitted to bring witnesses in his own behalf, and from the evidence produced, it appeared that he had acted the part both of a general and a soldier; that the attachment of his army to him was so great, that no dangers or difficulties could shake it; and that, even when all their patience and courage were found to be ineffectual, they were still ready to obey his commands, and die with arms in their hands. A great number of other particulars relating to his expedition were also cleared up; several charges against him were refuted; and it appeared that the Americans, far from being

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After the resignation of Admiral Keppel, the command of the Channel fleet was bestowed on Sir Charles Hardy, a brave and experienced officer, but now advanced in years, having retired from the service with the design of not returning to it, and being at that time governor of Greenwich hospital. The choice of an admiral to command this fleet was now of the greatest importance, on account of the accession of Spain to the general confederacy which took place during the present year. This determination was formally intimated by the Spanish minister on the 17th of June 1779, and was attended with new but ineffectual proposals for an accommodation with America, and the removal of the ministry. The imminent danger, however, to which the nation was now exposed, required vigorous exertion; and various projects for its internal defence were laid before the parliament. The spirit and magnanimity displayed on this occasion did the highest honour to the national character, and fully justified the opinion entertained of its valour and resources. All parts of the kingdom seemed actuated by a desire to concur in every measure necessary for its defence; large sums were subscribed by persons of rank and affluence; and companies were raised, and regiments formed, with an alacrity which quickly banished all apprehensions for the safety of the country.

On the other hand, the French, thinking themselves secure of victory by the accession of Spain, began to extend their schemes of conquest; and a squadron was fitted out under the command of the Marquis de Vaudreuil, destined to reinforce the fleet commanded by D'Estaing. But before proceeding to its destination, this squadron made an attack on the British settlements on the rivers Senegal and Gambia, which were easily conquered. On this occasion the French quitted their own island of Goree, which was soon afterwards taken possession of by Sir Edward Hughes, when on his way to the East Indies. But these distant conquests being insufficient to produce any serious impression, it was resolved to strike a blow nearer home, by the conquest of Jersey and Guernsey. An attempt was accordingly made on these islands, but with so little success that not a single man could be disembarked on the spot which they intended to conquer. The enterprise, however, proved indirectly serviceable to the cause of America. A fleet of four hundred merchantmen and transports was at this time on the point of sailing for New York, under the conduct of Admiral Arbuthnot; but that officer, informed of the attack on Jersey, thought it his duty to go to the assistance of that island rather than proceed on his voyage; and this delay was followed by another, occasioned by bad weather, so that the fleet, which was laden with warlike stores and necessities, did not arrive till the end of August, and several important enterprises projected by Sir Henry Clinton were in consequence abandoned. The French, however, determined to make a second attempt on Jersey; but their squadron, being attacked by another under Sir James Wallace, was driven on shore in a small bay on the coast of Normandy, under cover of a battery, and pursued by the British commander, who silenced the battery, took a thirty-four gun frigate, with two rich prizes, and burned two other frigates and several vessels besides.

Thus disappointed in the attempt on Jersey, the court of France next projected an invasion of Great Britain itself; and the preparations for the enterprise, whether serious or not, were so formidable, as justly to excite a considerable alarm in this country. Not only were the best troops in the French service marched down to the coasts of the British Channel, but transports were provided in great numbers, and many general officers promoted; the persons who were to command this important ex-

pedition were also named by the government. A junction was formed between the French and Spanish fleets, in spite of the endeavours of the British to prevent it; and the combined fleets made their appearance in the British seas with upwards of sixty ships of the line, besides a vast number of frigates and other armed vessels. But all this formidable preparation ended in the capture of only a single ship, the *Ardent*, of sixty-four guns. The combined fleets had passed the British fleet under Sir Charles Hardy in the mouth of the Channel without observing him; and then sailing along the coast of England, they came in sight of Plymouth, where they captured the *Ardent*, as already mentioned; after which they returned, without making the least attempt to effect a landing. The British admiral made good his entrance into the Channel without opposition, on the enemy quitting it, which a strong easterly wind obliged them to do; and he endeavoured to entice them up the Channel in pursuit of him; but the great sickness and mortality on board their ships obliged them to retire, in order, as they alleged, to recruit the health of their crews. Thus ended the first, and indeed the greatest exploit performed by the combined fleets in the British seas. An annual parade of a similar kind was afterwards kept up, and as formally opposed on the part of the British; but no act of hostility was ever committed by either of the Channel fleets against each other.

Though the pusillanimity manifested by the combined fleets was such that the French themselves were ashamed of it, the appearance of them in the Channel furnished opposition with abundance of matter for declamation. All ranks of men, indeed, now began to be wearied of the American war; and even those who had formerly been the most zealous in recommending coercive measures were at length convinced of their utter utility. The calamitous effects produced by the continuation of these measures, indeed, had by this time rendered the greater part of the people exceedingly averse to the war; and the almost universal wish was, that the oppressive burden of the American contest should be cast off, and the entire national strength exerted against those whom we had been accustomed to consider as our natural enemies. Nevertheless, the national spirit continued to be exerted with unabated vigour. Large sums, subscribed in the several counties, were employed in raising volunteers, and forming them into independent companies; and associations were also entered into in the towns, where the inhabitants bestowed a considerable portion of their time in training themselves to the use of arms. The East India Company, too, forgot their quarrels with ministry, and not only presented government with a sum sufficient for levying six thousand seamen, but at its own cost added three seventy-four gun ships to the navy.

Administration, however, not yet weary of the plans which they had originally adopted, seemed still inclined to prosecute schemes of conquest. The virulence of opposition continued unabated; and what was worse, every part of the kingdom seemed to imbibe the sentiments of the minority in parliament. Amongst the charges now brought against ministers was that of misapplying the national force. An hundred thousand men were employed for the internal defence of the kingdom. The army of Great Britain at this time fell little short of three hundred thousand men; the navy amounted to three hundred sail, including frigates and armed vessels; twenty millions had been expended on the service of the year 1779; and yet, with all this force and treasure, the utmost boast that ministers could make was, that the enemy had hitherto been kept at bay. Nor were the other charges of a less grave description. Veteran officers had been passed over to make room for persons of inferior merit; whilst the discontents and miserable state

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of Ireland, the loss of the West India islands, and other disasters, were all put to the account of ministers; and it was alleged that the universal cry of the nation was for their dismissal. To all this ministry replied by denying or attempting to refute every allegation, and at last, after several stormy debates, gained their point of an address without an amendment, by large majorities in both houses.

But the enormous expense incurred in carrying on the war occasioned such general alarm, that it was no longer possible to refuse complying with some scheme of economy, or at least giving it a patient hearing. The Duke of Richmond proposed that the crown should set the example, and moved for an address to this purpose; but the motion was negatived. The Earl of Shelburne next brought the subject under the consideration of parliament; and having, in a very elaborate speech, compared the expenses of former times with the present, and shown the immense disparity, he moved that the expenditure of the vast sums annually sunk in extraordinaries should be brought under some control, and that to extend the public expenses beyond the sums granted by parliament, was an invasion of its peculiar and exclusive rights. But although the Earl of Shelburne's motion was rejected, and some others of a similar tendency shared the same fate, the minds of the people were far from being conciliated to the views of ministers. On the contrary, an opinion began to prevail that they exercised an unconstitutional influence over the representatives of the nation, and that as this influence had recently been greatly augmented, nothing short of a change in the constitution of parliament could remedy the evil complained of. Accordingly, on the 30th of December 1779, a petition to this effect was framed in the city of York, where a number of the most respectable people in the county had assembled; and sixty-one gentlemen were appointed as a committee for carrying into effect the object contemplated by the petitioners. The York petition was followed by others of a similar description from twenty-seven of the principal counties and largest towns in England; while severe and even opprobrious language was used in the county meetings respecting both the ministry and the parliament.

The emissaries of America and the other enemies of Great Britain are said to have been active in fomenting these discords, which at this period rose to a height unknown for a century past. But the ministry continued firm, and, previous to taking any of the petitions into consideration, insisted on going through the business of the supplies.

At length, in the beginning of February 1780, a plan was brought forward by Mr Burke, for securing the independence of parliament, and introducing economy into the various departments of government. He proposed the abolition of the offices of treasurer, comptroller, and cofferer of the household; of treasurer of the chamber, master of the household, the board of green cloth, and several other places under the steward of the household; of the great and removing wardrobe, the jewel office, the robes, board of waks, and the civil branch of the board of ordnance. Other reformations were also suggested; but though the temper of the times obliged the minister to admit the bills, and even to pretend an approbation of the plan, he had no serious intention of acquiescing in the scheme to its full extent, or indeed in any part, if he could possibly help it. When the plan, therefore, came to be considered in detail, he was provided with objections to every part of it. But the general temper of the people without doors had now affected many of the members of parliament, and caused them to desert their old standard. An economical plan proposed in the House of Lords by the Earl of Shelburne was rejected by a narrow majority, and in the lower house matters went still

worse. The first proposition in Mr Burke's plan was to abolish the office of secretary of state for the colonies; and the utmost efforts of administration could preserve this office only by a majority of seven. The board of trade, however, was abolished by a majority of nine; but this was the only defeat sustained by ministry at present, all the rest of the plan being rejected excepting only one clause, by which it was enacted that the offices of lieutenant and ensign in the yeomen of the guards should no longer be sold, but given to officers in the army and navy on half pay, and of fifteen years' standing in their respective departments of service.

But the administration were destined to sustain a still more mortifying defeat than that which they had met with in the abolition of the board of trade. The 6th of April being the day appointed for taking into consideration the numerous petitions already mentioned, the subject of these was introduced by Mr Dunning, in an elaborate speech, in which he dwelt on the numerous attempts which had been made to introduce reformation and economy into the plans of government, and which had been defeated by ministerial artifice, or overthrown by mere dint of numbers; and he concluded by moving the celebrated resolution, that "the influence of the crown has increased, is increasing, and ought to be diminished." After a long and stormy debate, this motion was carried; upon which Mr Dunning further moved, that the House of Commons was as competent to examine into and correct abuses in the expenditure of the civil list as in any other branch of the public revenue; and this was followed by a third resolution, moved by Mr Thomas Pitt, that it was the duty of the house to provide an immediate and effectual redress of the abuses complained of in the petitions. The ministry now interposed with a request that nothing further might be done at that sitting; but such was the temper of the house, that both these motions were carried without a division.

Ministry had never experienced such a complete defeat, nor been treated with so much asperity of language. The news of the proceedings of the day were received by the people at large with as much joy as if a complete victory over a foreign enemy had been announced. Opposition, however, though masters of the field at present, did not imagine that they had obtained any permanent victory, and therefore resolved to make the most of the advantages they had gained. Accordingly, at the next meeting it was moved by Mr Dunning, that to ascertain the independence of parliament, and remove all suspicion of its being under undue influence, there should, every session, seven days after the meeting of parliament, be laid before the house an account of all the sums issued out of the civil list, or any other branch of the revenue, since the last recess, in favour of any of its members; and this passed with little difficulty. But when he moved that the treasurers of the chamber and household, the cofferer, comptroller, and master of the household, with the clerks of the green cloth, and their deputies, should be excluded from having seats in the house, a warm debate ensued, and the motion was carried only by a majority of two. This was the last triumph of the popular party; their next motion, for the exclusion of revenue officers, being thrown by a majority of twenty-seven. A final effort was however made by Mr Dunning, who proposed an address to the throne against proroguing or dissolving the parliament, until measures had been taken to prevent the improper influence complained of in the petitions; but on a division the motion was lost by a very considerable majority. Ministry would gladly have screened their friends from the vengeance of opposition, alleging the lateness of the hour, it being then past midnight; but the Speaker perceiving Mr Fox about

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The last victory of administration confirmed the unfavourable opinion which the people had conceived of the majority of their representatives; and in the height of the ill humour which the conduct of the parliament had created in the multitude, those discontents broke out which were so near involving the kingdom in a species of civil war. The hardships under which individuals of the Roman Catholic persuasion laboured in this country had lately engaged the consideration of enlightened and liberal-minded men; whilst the inutility as well as absurdity of persecuting people from whom no danger was to be apprehended, and who were not suspected of disaffection to the civil constitution of this country, had induced several persons of rank and influence to undertake to procure them relief from the disabilities under which they laboured. Meanwhile the calamities of the times had afforded the Catholics a proper occasion for manifesting their attachment to government; and accordingly they presented a loyal and dutiful address to the king, containing the strongest assurances of affection and fidelity to his person and civil government. They declared that their exclusion from many of the benefits of that constitution had not diminished their reverence for it; that they had patiently submitted to such restrictions and discouragements as the legislature thought expedient, and had thankfully received such relaxation of the rigour of the laws as the mildness of an enlightened age and the benignity of the British government had gradually produced; that they submissively waited, without presuming to suggest either time or measure, for such other indulgence as the happy causes alluded to could not fail in their own season to effect; that their dissent from the legal establishment in matters of religion was purely conscientious; that they held no opinions adverse to his majesty's government, or repugnant to the duties of good citizens; that they thought it their duty to assure his majesty of their unreserved affection to his government, of their unalterable attachment to the cause and welfare of the country, and their detestation of the designs and views of any foreign power against the dignity of the crown and the safety and tranquillity of the people; and that, though they did not presume to point out the particular means by which they might be allowed to testify their zeal and their wishes to serve the country, they would be perfectly ready, on every occasion, to give such proofs of their fidelity, and of the purity of their intentions, as his majesty's wisdom and the sense of the nation should at any time deem expedient. This address was presented to the king on the 1st of May 1778, and was signed by the Duke of Norfolk, the Earls of Surrey and Shrewsbury, the Lords Stourton, Petre, Arundel, Dormer, Teynham, Clifford, and Linton; and by a hundred and sixty-three commoners of rank and fortune.

The only obstacle which stood in the way was the difficulty of overcoming the prejudices of the lower classes, who were disposed to disapprove of and condemn any indulgence shown to those of a persuasion which they had been taught to regard with horror and detestation. But notwithstanding the prepossessions of the vulgar, it was resolved by several individuals of generous and liberal sentiments, to espouse their cause as far as it could be done consistently with the principles of the constitution and the general temper of the times. And the circumstance of their being patronized by some of the principal leaders of opposition was greatly in their favour; for it

showed that those who professed to be the most strenuous friends of freedom and the constitution did not imagine that these would be endangered by treating the Roman Catholics with more lenity than they had hitherto experienced. Accordingly, about the middle of May, Sir George Saville made a motion for the repeal of some of the disqualifications under which the Catholics laboured. He grounded his motion on the necessity of vindicating the honour and asserting the true principles of the Protestant religion, of which the peculiar merit consisted in an abhorrence of persecution. He represented the address above quoted as a convincing proof of the loyal disposition of the Roman Catholics, and as an unfeigned testimony of the soundness of their political principles; and, to silence the objections of those who might suspect the Catholics of duplicity, a test was proposed of so binding and solemn a nature, that no authority could annul its efficacy.

The pains and penalties of the statutes to be repealed were laid before the house by Mr Dunning. By these statutes it was made felony in a foreign clergyman of the Catholic communion, and high treason in one who was a native of this kingdom, to teach the doctrines, or perform divine service according to the rites, of that church; the estates of persons educated abroad in the Catholic persuasion were forfeited to the next Protestant heir; a son, or any other nearest relation, being a Protestant, was empowered to take possession of his own father's, or nearest kinsman's estate, during their lives; and a Roman Catholic was disabled from acquiring any legal property by purchase. The mildness of the British government did not indeed countenance the enforcement of the severities enacted by these statutes; but still the prospect of gain subjected every man of the Roman Catholic persuasion to the ill usage of informers; and on the evidence of such miscreants the magistrates were bound, however unwilling, to put these cruel laws in execution.

In consequence of such representations, the motion made in favour of the Roman Catholics was received without a dissentient voice; and a bill conformable thereto was brought into and passed through both houses. The test or oath to be taken by the Catholics was conceived in the strongest terms. They were to swear allegiance to the king's person and family, and to abjure especially the pretensions to the crown assumed by the person called Charles III. They were to declare their disbelief and detestation of the doctrines, that it is lawful to put individuals to death on pretence of their being heretics; that no faith is to be kept with heretics; that princes excommunicated by the pope and council, or by the see of Rome, or any other authority, may be deposed or murdered by their subjects or by any others; and that the pope of Rome, or any other foreign prelate or sovereign, is entitled to any temporal or civil jurisdiction or pre-eminence, either directly or indirectly, in this kingdom. And they were solemnly to profess, that they made the aforesaid declarations with the utmost sincerity, and in the strictest and plainest meaning of the words and language of the test, without harbouring a secret persuasion that any dispensation from Rome, or any other authority, could acquit or absolve them from the obligations contracted by this oath, or declare it null and void.

The favour shown to the Roman Catholics in England encouraged those of the same persuasion in Scotland to hope for a similar relief; and several Scottish gentlemen of high rank and character, who had seats in the house, not only expressed their warmest wishes for the extension of the indulgence to their own country, but declared their intention to bring in a bill for the purpose the ensuing session. The design was approved of by the General Assembly of the Church of Scotland; and a petition on behalf of the

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Roman Catholics in Scotland was in consequence prepared. But these favourable prospects were for a time obscured by a dense cloud of religious fanaticism, looming large and high in the political horizon. A pamphlet appeared, in which the doctrines and professors of the Roman Catholic religion were represented, the former as damnable, and the latter as the common foes of mankind and the disturbers of all states; and this inflammatory production being circulated among every class, raised up a great number of enemies to the intended petition. The opposition was at first chiefly conducted by persons at Edinburgh, who assumed the title of The Committee for the Protestant Interest, and under that denomination carried on a correspondence with all those who coincided in their opinions, being in fact a very large proportion of the common people in Scotland. This committee, from its residence in the capital of the kingdom, was naturally supposed to consist of persons of weight and influence; and hence it in a manner directed the motions of all the others. The persons of whom it was composed, however, acted from honest though mistaken views. They aimed only at the preservation of the Protestant religion and the liberties of their country, which they conceived to be endangered by the indulgence shown to individuals of the Roman Catholic persuasion; and, actuated by these ideas, they exerted themselves so effectually, that the principal gentlemen of the Catholic persuasion thought it requisite to convey to the ministry an intimation of their desire to desist for the present from applying for an indulgence similar to that which had been extended to their fellow-subjects of the same communion in England. They published also in the newspapers the representation which they had made to the ministry, in hopes of convincing the country that they were sincerely disposed to remove any cause of dissatisfaction on their own account, and to submit to any inconvenience rather than occasion disturbance, even in the prosecution of a lawful and praiseworthy object. But matters had now gone too far to be conciliated by any concessions.

On the 2d day of February 1779, the populace met according to appointment, in order to carry into execution the various projects which they had in contemplation. They began by an attack upon the house inhabited by the Roman Catholic bishop, and others of his persuasion, which they committed to the flames, together with the place of worship adjoining to it; and having in the same manner destroyed another house, which also contained a chapel, they proceeded to vent their resentment on several individuals of the same persuasion by burning their effects. The next objects of their vengeance were those who had patronised the Roman Catholics. They beset the houses of Dr Robertson and Mr Crosby; but the friends of these eminent persons, on hearing of the intentions of the rioters, came to their assistance in such numbers, and so well prepared to repel force by force, that the populace did not dare to commit the violence they had premeditated. This spirited conduct, which was followed by the adoption of the necessary precautions against their malevolent designs, put an end to the attempts of the mob at Edinburgh. But the spirit of dissatisfaction on account of the intended indulgence remained in full force; and ministry being held out as harbouring a secret determination to undermine the Protestant religion, and to introduce popery, were in consequence loaded with the most outrageous invectives.

Matters, however, did not stop here. The same ungovernable spirit was soon communicated to a part of the English nation: the cry against popery became daily louder among the inferior classes; and that inveteracy which time appeared to have mitigated began to revive in as powerful a degree as if the nation were actually under the impending horrors of persecution. To this were added

the secret fears of others, who still imagined that it was not inconsistent with good policy to discourage a religion, from the professors of which so much danger had accrued to the constitution of this country in former times, and who, though averse to acts of violence, thought it necessary to keep alive the antipathy to the ancient faith, and by no means to show a willingness to grant any further indulgence than it had hitherto experienced. On these grounds they were of opinion, that a suspension of the laws enacted against it, although tacit and unauthorized, was sufficient to remove all complaints of harshness and oppression on the part of the Roman Catholics; and they looked upon the penal statutes as a regulate bar to confine the Catholics within the bounds of due submission to the laws of a Protestant state.

Hence a society was formed in London, under the designation of the Protestant Association, and Lord George Gordon, who had rendered himself conspicuous in Scotland by his opposition to the repeal, was elected its president; and this body now prepared to act in a decisive manner against the resolutions of the legislature.

On the 28th of May 1780 the members of the association held a meeting in order to settle as to the manner in which they should present a petition to the House of Commons against the repeal of the penal statutes; and on this occasion a long speech was delivered by the president, who represented the Roman persuasion as gaining ground rapidly in the country, and affirmed that the only method of stopping its progress, was to go up with a spirited remonstrance to their representatives, and to tell them in plain and resolute terms that they were determined to maintain their religious freedom against all enemies, and at whatever sacrifice. This harangue being received with the loudest applause, Lord George next moved that the whole body of the association should meet on the second day of June, in St George's Fields, at ten in the morning, to accompany him to the House of Commons for the presentation of the petition; which was also assented to unanimously. Lord George then informed the meeting, that if he found himself attended by fewer than twenty thousand persons he would not present the petition; he directed them to form into four divisions, the first, second, and third consisting of those who belonged to the city, Westminster, and Southwark, and the fourth of the Scottish residents in London; and all were requested, by way of distinction, to wear blue cockades in their hats. Three days previous to the presentation of the petition, he gave notice of it in the ordinary form to the house, and stated the manner in which it was to be presented; but this was received with as much indifference and unconcern as all his former intimations.

On the second day of June, according to appointment, about fifty or sixty thousand persons assembled in St George's Fields; and drawing up in four divisions, as had been arranged, proceeded to the parliament house, with Lord George Gordon at their head. An immense roll of parchment was carried before them, containing the names of those who had signed the petition. On their way to the house they behaved with propriety and decency; but immediately on their arrival disturbances commenced. The rioters began by compelling all the members of both houses whom they met to put blue cockades in their hats, and call out "No Popery;" they forced some to take an oath that they would vote for the repeal of the popery act, as they styled it; and they treated others with great indignity, posting themselves in all the avenues to both houses, the doors of which they twice endeavoured to break open. But their rage was chiefly directed against the members of the House of Lords, several of whom narrowly escaped being murdered.

During these disturbances Lord George Gordon moved

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for leave to bring up the petition, which was readily granted; but when he moved that it should be taken into immediate consideration, his proposal was strenuously opposed by almost the whole house. Enraged at this opposition, he came out several times to the people during the debate, acquainting them how averse the house appeared to grant their petition, and naming particularly those who had spoken against it. Several members of the house expostulated with him in the warmest terms on the unjustifiableness of his conduct; and one of his relations, Colonel Gordon, threatened to run him through the moment any of the rioters should force their entrance into the house. It was some hours before the house could carry on its deliberations with any regularity, which was not done till the members were relieved by the arrival of a party of the guards. As soon as order had been restored, the business of the petition was resumed, when Lord George Gordon told the house that it had been signed by nearly a hundred and twenty thousand British Protestant subjects, and he therefore insisted that the petition should be considered without delay. But notwithstanding the dangers with which they were menaced, and the proof which the mover of the petition had given that no means would be left unemployed to compel them to grant it, the Commons continued immovable in their determination, and of two hundred members then present in the house, six only voted for taking the petition into immediate consideration.

In the mean time the mob had dispersed itself into various parts of the metropolis, where they demolished two Roman Catholic chapels belonging to foreign ministers, and openly vented the most terrible menaces against all persons of that persuasion. On the 4th of June they assembled in great numbers in the eastern parts of London, and attacked the chapels and houses of the Roman Catholics in that quarter, stripping them of their contents, which they threw into the street, and committed to the flames. They renewed their outrages on the following day, destroying several Romish chapels, and demolished the house of Sir George Saville, in resentment of his having brought into parliament the bill in favour of the Roman Catholics. On the 6th both houses met as usual; but finding that no business could be done, they adjourned to the 19th.

During this and the following days the rioters were absolute masters of the metropolis and its environs. Some of those who had been concerned in the demolition of the chapels belonging to foreign ministers having been seized and sent to Newgate, the mob collected before that prison, and demanded their immediate release; and this being refused, they proceeded to throw into the keeper's house firebrands and all manner of combustibles, which communicating fire to that and other parts of the building, the whole of the immense pile was soon in flames. Amidst this scene of confusion, the prisoners, amounting to about three hundred, were all released, including several who were under sentence of death. In the same manner they set fire to the King's Bench and Fleet prisons, and to a number of houses belonging to Roman Catholics. The terror occasioned by these incendiaries was such that most people hung out of their windows pieces of blue silk, which was the colour assumed by the rioters, and chalked on their doors and shutters the words "No Popery," by way of signifying they were friendly to their cause.

The night of the 7th of June concluded these horrors. Not less than thirty-six different conflagrations were counted at the same time. The Bank had been threatened, and was twice assailed; but being well guarded, both attempts failed. In the evening large bodies of troops arrived from all parts, happily in time to put a stop to the progress of the rioters, and falling upon them wherever they appeared, multitudes were killed and wounded, whilst num-

bers perished through intoxication. It was not until the afternoon of the 8th, however, that people began to recover from their consternation. During the greater part of the day, the disorders of the preceding night had created so terrible an alarm, that the shops were almost universally shut in every part of London. Nor were the melancholy effects of mingued zeal confined solely to the capital. The outrageous disposition of the populace was preparing to enact the like horrid scenes in other parts of England, and the mob actually rose in Hull, in Bristol, and in Bath; but through the timely interposition of the magistracy, these places were saved from their fury.

On the subsiding of this violent and unexpected commotion, Lord George Gordon was arrested, and committed close prisoner to the Tower after having undergone a long examination before the principal lords of the council.

On the 19th of June both houses met again pursuant to adjournment; and on this occasion a speech was read from the throne, acquainting them with the measures which had been taken in consequence of the disturbances, and assuring them of the readiness of the crown to concur in any measures that might contribute to the maintenance of the laws and liberties of the people. The speech was highly approved; but the conduct of administration was severely censured, and charged with unpardonable neglect for not calling forth the civil power, and employing the military in due time to obviate the mischiefs which had been committed. Ministry excused itself, however, on the ground of not having sufficient strength to answer all the demands of assistance that were made during the riots, and the absolute impossibility of suppressing them till the arrival of troops from the country. The various petitions which had been presented for the repeal of the act which had occasioned the riots, were now taken into consideration; but the house continued in the same mind as formerly. Nevertheless it was thought proper to yield somewhat to the prejudices of the people, by passing a bill for preventing persons of the popish persuasion from teaching or educating the children of Protestants; but this was afterwards thrown out by the Lords.

Nothing could have happened more opportunely for the ministry than the Protestant riots; for such were the alarm and terror occasioned by them, that the ardour which had been manifested in favour of popular meetings and associations, as they were called, for opposing the measures of government, was in a great degree suppressed. The county meetings were also represented as having a tendency, like the Protestant association, to bring on insurrections and rebellions; many began to consider all popular meetings as extremely dangerous; and among the commercial and monied classes, some were so panic-struck by the late riots, that all attention to the principles of the constitution was overruled by their anxiety about the preservation of their property. Had it not been for these events, it is probable that the spirit of opposition which then prevailed in the different counties would have compelled administration to make some concessions to the people.

In the suppression of these riots, however, the interference of the military without the command of the civil magistrate became a matter of suspicion to the country; and in the House of Lords the Duke of Richmond expressed a desire that some of his majesty's ministers would rise and give their lordships assurances, that the measures taken in order to suppress the riots, which were defensible only upon the ground of necessity, would be so stated, and that what had been illegally done, on the ground of necessity, would be cured by an act of indemnity. Various other observations were thrown out relative to the king's prerogative and to military law; upon which

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Reign of George III. Lord Mansfield observed, that neither the king's prerogative nor military law had any thing to do with the conduct of government in their endeavours to quell the late outrages. All men, of all ranks, descriptions, and denominations, were bound, by their oath of allegiance, to interpose for the prevention of acts of high treason or felony, wherever any attempts to perpetrate such crimes were made in their presence, and were criminal if they refused to do so. In the whole of these proceedings, therefore, the military had not acted in their technical capacity as military, but had merely exercised their duty as civil men, which they, in common with other civil men, had both a right and an obligation to exercise. When a body of men were convened, without proceeding to the actual perpetration of treasonable or felonious acts, then the presence of the civil magistrate was necessary before the military could interpose at all; and for this reason, that as no acts of felony were committed, they could have no ples in their civil character for meddling at all. But by the statute law of the country, it became felonious in any combination of men to persevere in that combination after the riot act had been read by a justice of the peace; and this being done, they had then, and not till then, a constitutional reason for their interposition, namely, the privilege and duty of hindering the commission of felony whenever they had it in their power to do so.

This extraordinary doctrine was far from being agreeable to the nation in general, and was freely censured in publications of all kinds. It was admitted, that if soldiers came accidentally as individuals to any place where felonies were committing, they might interfere, as well as others of the king's subjects, in the prevention of them. But this was a different case from that of bodies of armed troops being sent under officers commissioned by the king, and with orders to act against riotous and disorderly persons without any authority from the civil magistrate. The constitution of England knew no such character as a mercenary soldier, at the sole will of the executive power. Soldiers were held to their duty by laws which affected no other part of the community; and no soldier, as such, could be employed in the service of the constitution without a particular act of parliament in his favour. The idea that a military man was convertible into a soldier or a citizen, as royalty might move its sceptre, was a novelty got up for the present occasion. Mercenary armies were understood to consist of men who had either detached themselves or been forced from civil societies; and on these suppositions laws were made regarding their liberties and lives, such as no members of civil society could submit to. Soldiers were only tolerated by annual bills, and under repeated pretences; and the very idea of blending them with the common subjects of the state, and giving persons of their description a right of judging on its most important occurrences, would have filled our ancestors with horror. The laws tolerated an army for certain periods, and under certain restrictions; but there was no existing law which admitted the interference of the military in any of the operations of civil government. It was acknowledged that the late atrocious riots had rendered an extraordinary exertion of power absolutely necessary; but it was at the same time contended, that the interposition of the army in those outrages, without any authority from the civil magistrate, was an act of prerogative unconstitutional and illegal, although perfectly seasonable and beneficial. The public safety and benefit might sometimes excuse exertions of power, which would be injurious and tyrannical on ordinary occasions; but the utmost care ought to be taken that such extraordinary exertions should not be established as precedents, which might operate fatally to the constitution. If a large standing army was kept up,

and the king was understood to be invested with a power of ordering the troops to act discretionally whenever he should judge proper, without any authority from the civil magistrate, the people could have no possible security for their liberties. Reign of George III.

We now proceed to notice the operations of the war, which, notwithstanding the powerful confederacy against Great Britain, were rather in her favour than otherwise. The Spaniards had commenced their military operations with the siege of Gibraltar, but with very little success; and the close of the year 1779, and beginning of 1780, were productive of considerable naval advantages to Great Britain. On the 18th of December 1779, the fleet under the command of Sir Hyde Parker in the West Indies captured nine sail of French merchant ships under the convoy of some ships of war; and two days afterwards he detached Rear-Admiral Rowley in pursuit of three large French ships, which were supposed to form part of M. la Motte-Piquet's squadron returning from Grenada. About the same time several other vessels were taken by the same squadron commanded by Sir Hyde Parker. On the 8th of January 1780, Sir George Brydges Rodney, who had been intrusted with the command of a fleet, one object of the destination of which was the relief of Gibraltar, fell in with twenty-two sail of Spanish ships, and in a few hours captured the whole fleet. In little more than a week afterwards the same fortunate admiral met with still more signal success. On the 16th of the month he engaged, near Cape St Vincent, a Spanish fleet, consisting of eleven sail of the line and two frigates, under the command of Don Juan de Langara. The Spaniards made a gallant defence; but four of their largest ships were taken, and carried into Gibraltar. These were, the Phoenix of eighty guns and seven hundred men, on board of which was the Admiral Don Juan de Langara; the Monarca, of seventy guns and six hundred men, Don Antonio Oyarride commander; the Princesa, of seventy guns and six hundred men, Don Manuel de Leon commander; and the Diligente, of seventy guns and six hundred men, Don Antonio Abornoz commander. Two other seventy gun ships were also taken; but one of them was driven on shore on the breakers and lost, and the other was likewise driven on shore, but afterwards recovered. Four ships of the line and the two frigates escaped; but two of the former were much damaged in the action, during which one ship, the San Domingo, of seventy guns and six hundred men, was blown up. The five men of war taken were remarkably fine ships, and being afterwards completely refitted and manned, were put into the English line of battle. The Spanish admiral and his officers applied to Sir George Rodney to obtain the liberty of returning to Spain upon their parole of honour; but this he declined for some time, having received information that a great number of British seamen, who ought to have been released, were then prisoners in Spain. However, having afterwards received assurances that these captives would be immediately set at liberty, he released the Spanish admiral and officers upon their parole; and the prisoners in general were treated with a generosity and humanity which made a great impression upon the court of Madrid and the Spanish nation.

When Admiral Rodney had supplied the garrison of Gibraltar with provisions, ammunition, and money, he proceeded on his voyage to the West Indies; having sent home part of his fleet, with the Spanish prizes, under the command of Rear-Admiral Digby. On the twentieth of March an action was fought in the West Indies, between some French and English men of war, the former under the command of M. de la Motte-Piquet, and the latter, forming part of Sir Peter Parker's squadron, under that of Commodore Cornwallis. The contest was maintained

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Soon after Admiral Rodney had arrived in the West Indies, and assumed the command of his majesty's ships at the Leeward Islands, an action took place between the fleet under his orders and that of the French under the command of Count de Guichen. This occurred on the 17th of April. The British squadron consisted of twenty ships of the line, besides frigates; and the French fleet of twenty-three ships of the line, and several frigates. The action began a little before one, and continued till about a quarter after four in the afternoon. Admiral Rodney was on board the *Sandwich*, a ninety gun ship, which beat three of the French ships out of their line of battle, and entirely broke it. But the *Sandwich* and several other ships were so much crippled that an immediate pursuit was impossible, without compromising the safety of the disabled ships. The victory was accordingly claimed by both sides, but no ship was taken on either, and the French retired to Guadaloupe. Admiral Rodney's ship, the *Sandwich*, had suffered so much, that for twenty-four hours she was with difficulty kept above water. Of the British upwards of three hundred were killed and wounded in this engagement. On the 15th of May another action took place between the same commanders. But as it did not commence till near seven in the evening, and only a few ships were engaged, nothing decisive took place. The fleets met again on the 19th of the same month, when a third action ensued; but this, like the former, terminated without any material advantage to either side. On this occasion the British lost upwards of two hundred men killed and wounded; while, according to the French accounts, the total loss sustained by the enemy in the three actions, amounted to nearly a thousand killed and wounded. The preceding details show that the French at this time had a formidable fleet in the West Indies; and its force was augmented in June by the junction of a Spanish squadron near the island of Dominica; so that the French and Spanish fleets, when united, amounted to thirty-six sail of the line.

Notwithstanding their superiority, however, they did not attack any of the British islands, nor even reconnoitre the fleet under the command of Sir George Brydges Rodney, which then lay at anchor in Gros Islet bay. By the vigilance and good conduct of the admiral, indeed, their efforts were in a great measure paralysed; and so sensible were the inhabitants of these islands of his services, that the houses of assembly of St Christophers and Nevis presented addresses to him, testifying their gratitude for the security which they enjoyed in consequence of his spirited and seasonable exertions.

In the month of June, Admiral Geary, who commanded the grand fleet, took twelve valuable merchant ships bound from Port-au-Prince to Bourdeaux and other ports of France; but in the month of July a very unexpected and important capture was made by the Spaniards, which excited considerable alarm in Great Britain. On the 8th of August, Captain Montrau, who had under his command the *Ramilles* of seventy-four guns, and two frigates, with a fleet of merchantmen bound for the East and West Indies under convoy, had the misfortune to fall in with the combined fleets of France and Spain, which had sailed from Cadiz the preceding day. The *Ramilles* and the two frigates escaped; but the rest were so completely surrounded, that five East Indianmen, and fifty merchant ships bound for the West Indies, were taken. This was one of the most complete naval captures ever made, and proved a heavy stroke to the commerce of Great Britain. The prize, however, great as it was, scarcely compensated the Spaniards for the capture of Fort Omoo, where upwards of

three millions of dollars were secured by the victors, and other valuable commodities, including twenty-five quintals of quicksilver, for extracting the precious metals from their ores, and the loss of which consequently rendered the mines useless.

But whilst the British were making the most vigorous efforts, and upon the whole gaining advantages over the powers who opposed them in the field, enemies were raised up throughout all Europe, who, by reason of their acting indirectly, could neither be opposed nor resisted. The power which most decidedly manifested its hostile intentions was Holland; but besides this, a most formidable confederacy, under the title of the *Armed Neutrality*, was formed, evidently with the design of crushing the power of Great Britain. Of this powerful confederacy the empress of Russia avowed herself the head; and her resolution was intimated on the 26th of February 1780, in a declaration addressed to the courts of London, Versailles, and Madrid. In this paper it was alleged, that her imperial majesty's subjects had often been molested in their navigation, and retarded in their operations, by the ships and privateers of the belligerent powers; that she found herself under the necessity of removing the vexations which were offered to the commerce of Russia, as well as to the liberty of commerce in general, by all the means compatible with her dignity and the welfare of her subjects; but that before adopting any serious measures, and to prevent all new misunderstandings, she thought it just and equitable to expose to the eyes of all Europe the principles which she had adopted as the guides of her conduct.

And these were contained in the following propositions: First, that neutral ships should enjoy a free navigation, even from port to port, and on the coasts of the belligerent powers; secondly, that all effects belonging to the subjects of the belligerent powers should be looked upon as free on board such neutral ships, excepting only such goods as were stipulated contraband; thirdly, that the principles recognised, and the articles enumerated as contraband, in the treaties between Great Britain and Russia in 1734 and 1766, should still be adhered to. In the former it was provided, that "the subjects of either party may freely pass, repass, and trade in all countries which now are, or hereafter shall be, at enmity with the other of the said parties, places actually blocked up or besieged only excepted, provided they do not carry any warlike stores or ammunition to the enemy," whilst, "as for all other effects, their ships, passengers, and goods, shall be free and unmolested; but," that "cannons, mortars, and other warlike utensils, in any quantity beyond what may be necessary for the ship's provision, and may properly appertain to and be judged necessary for every man of the ship's crew, or for each passenger, shall be deemed ammunition of war; and if any such be found, they may seize and confiscate the same according to law; but neither the vessels, passengers, nor the rest of the goods, shall be detained for that reason, or hindered from pursuing their voyage." And in the treaty of 1766 the same enumeration was given of the goods stipulated as contraband, as in the treaty of 1734. Her imperial majesty further proposed, fourthly, that in order to determine what characterizes a port blocked up, that denomination should not be granted, except to places before which there were actually a number of enemy's ships stationed near enough to render its entry dangerous; and, lastly, that these principles should serve as rules in judicial proceedings and in sentences as to the legality of prizes. Her imperial majesty declared, that she was firmly resolved to maintain these principles; that, in order to protect the honour of her flag and the security of the commerce and navigation of her subjects, she had given an order to fit out a considerable naval force; that

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this measure, however, would have no influence on the strict and rigorous neutrality which she was resolved to observe, as long as she should not be forced to depart from her principles of moderation and impartiality; and that it was only in such an extremity that her fleet would be ordered to act, wherever honour, interest, or necessity, should require. This declaration was also communicated to the States-general by Prince Galitzin, envoy extraordinary of Russia, who invited them to make common cause with the empress for the protection of commerce and navigation; and similar communications and invitations were made to the courts of Copenhagen, Stockholm, and Lisbon, in order, as was alleged, that the navigation of all the neutral trading nations might be established and legalized, and a system adopted founded upon justice, and calculated to serve as a sort of maritime code for future ages.

The memorial of the empress of Russia, though proceeding upon principles unfavourable to the views of Great Britain, and incompatible with her maritime superiority, received a civil answer from that court; but other powers, as might have been expected, received it with far greater cordiality. In the answer of France it was observed, that what her imperial majesty claimed from the belligerent powers was nothing more than the rules prescribed to the French navy; the execution of which was maintained with an exactness known and applauded by all Europe. Strong approbation was expressed of the principles and views of her imperial majesty; and it was declared, that from the measures now adopted by Russia, solid advantages would undoubtedly result, not only to her subjects, but also to those of all nations. Sweden and Denmark likewise acceded formally to the armed neutrality proposed by Russia; and the States-general, after an interval of some months, followed their example. It was further resolved by the parties to this armed league, to make common cause at sea against any of the belligerent powers who should violate, with respect to neutral nations, the principles which had been laid down in the memorial of Russia.

But though the British ministry could not openly engage in war with all the other powers of Europe, they determined to take signal vengeance on the Dutch, whose base ingratitude and perfidy now became a subject of general speculation. It has already been observed, that ever since the commencement of hostilities with the Americans, the Dutch had shown a decided inclination in their favour; and this partiality continued to be evinced to a degree beyond what might have been expected from the natural avidity of a mercantile people. Frequent memorials and remonstrances had in consequence passed between the two nations, and the breach gradually grew wider and wider, until at last matters came to extremities, by a discovery that the town of Amsterdam was about to enter into a commercial treaty with America. This came to light in the beginning of September 1780, by the capture of Mr Laurens, lately president of the American congress, and who had been empowered by that

body to conclude a treaty with Holland. Mr Laurens himself was instantly committed prisoner to the Tower, and a spirited remonstrance was addressed to the states of Holland, requiring a formal disavowal of the transaction. The states, however, answered evasively, that they would take the matter into consideration according to the forms and usages of the country, and that a reply would be given as soon as the nature of their government would admit.

The British government could not possibly mistake this pitiful equivocation; and accordingly the most vigorous measures were instantly resolved on. On the 25th of January 1781, it was announced to the House of Commons that his majesty had directed letters of marque and reprisal to be issued against the States-general and their subjects. For the causes and motives of his majesty's conduct in this respect, the house were referred to a public manifesto against that republic, which had been ordered to be laid before parliament. The charges against the republic were briefly summed up by Lord North in his speech on the occasion. The states, he said, had, in open violation of treaties, not only refused to give Great Britain that assistance which those treaties entitled her to claim when attacked by the house of Bourbon, but had also, in direct violation of the law of nations, contributed to furnish France with warlike stores, and had now at length thought proper to countenance the magistracy of Amsterdam in the insult which they had offered to this country, by entering into a treaty with the rebellious colonies of Great Britain, as free and independent states. By the treaty of 1678, it had been stipulated, that in case Great Britain was attacked by the house of Bourbon, she had a right to take her choice of either calling upon the States-general to become parties in the war, and to attack the house of Bourbon within two months, or of requiring an aid of six thousand troops and twenty ships of war, which the states were to furnish immediately after the claim was made. But though this country had always preserved inviolate her faith with Holland, yet that republic had refused to fulfil the terms of this treaty. The States-general had also suffered Paul Jones, a Scotsman, and a pirate, acting without legal authority from any acknowledged government, to bring British ships into their ports, and to reft them.¹ A rebel privateer had in like manner been saluted at the Dutch island of St Eustatius, after she had been suffered to capture two British ships within cannon-shot of their forts and castles. A memorial had been presented at the Hague in June 1779, on the breaking out of the war with Spain, to claim the aid we were entitled to require by the treaty of 1678; but this not the least notice had been taken on the part of the states. Two other notices had since been delivered, each of which met with the same reception. The British ministry had done all in their power to bring the states to a true sense of their interest; and when the necessity of the case compelled them to seize on the Dutch ships carrying stores to France, they had paid the full value of the cargoes, and returned the ships; so that neither the private merchant, the private adventurer, nor the

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¹ This man, who had formerly been a servant in Lord Selkirk's house, had landed in 1778, and plundered it of the plate, but without doing any further mischief. The action, however, proved very disagreeable to his own party; and, at the desire of Dr Franklin, the plate was afterwards restored. After this exploit he attempted to set fire to the town of Whitehaven, but without success. In 1779 he made a descent on the coast of Ireland, but without committing any act of hostility; his people indeed carried off some sheep and oxen, but their captain paid liberally for what they had taken. In the month of September 1779, he appeared in the Frith of Forth with several prizes, and advanced up above the island of Inchkeith, so as to be nearly opposite to Leith. His design was supposed to have been to burn the shipping there; but he was prevented from attempting this by a strong westerly wind; and such measures were also taken for the defence of the harbour, by erecting batteries and otherwise, that he would probably have miscarried had any attempt been made by him. On leaving the coast of Scotland he fell in with the *Serpas* and *Scarborough*, both of which he took after a desperate engagement, in which these vessels were reduced to almost total wreck. These prizes were carried by Jones into a Dutch harbour; and it was this transaction to which Lord North now alluded. He was called a pirate, on account of his not being at that time properly furnished with a commission either from France or America; though this was denied by the opposite party.

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But before this resolution could have been communicated officially to the naval commanders in the West Indies, the Dutch were actually attacked. The island of St Eustatius was, on the 3d of February 1781, summoned by Admiral Rodney and General Vaughan to surrender to the arms of Great Britain, and only one hour was given for consideration. Submission was inevitable. The island accordingly surrendered; the property found on it was confiscated, and a sale instituted, with circumstances of rapacity which afterwards became the subject of a discussion in parliament, and drew upon the nation the ill will of all Europe. The Dutch in fact seem to have acted with great imprudence, and, notwithstanding their provoking conduct towards Britain, to have made no preparations for war in the event of being attacked. But in spite of this inactivity, they still retained much of their ancient valour, and were in fact the most formidable naval enemies whom Britain had to contend with.

By August 1781 they had equipped a considerable squadron, the command of which was given to Rear-admiral Zoutman; and on the 5th of that month this squadron fell in with the British fleet commanded by Admiral Hyde Parker. The force under Zoutman consisted, according to the Dutch account, of one ship of seventy-four guns, one of sixty-eight, one of sixty-four, three of fifty-four, and one of forty-four, besides frigates; but the English account states the hostile fleet to have consisted of eight two-decked ships. No gun was fired on either side till the fleets were within half musket-shot distance. The action began about eight in the morning, and continued with the utmost fury for three hours and forty minutes. Both sides fought with equal ardour, and little advantage was gained by either. When the action ceased, both squadrons lay like logs on the water; but after a time the Dutch ships of war, with their convoy, bore away for the Texel, whilst the English were too much disabled to follow them. A Dutch seventy-four gun ship sunk soon after the action. On board the British fleet upwards of four hundred were killed and wounded; and the loss of the Dutch was probably greater. Admiral Zoutman, in his account of the engagement, states that his men fought like lions; and the British admiral, in the dispatch transmitted by him to the admiralty, observes that his majesty's officers and men behaved with great bravery, nor did the enemy show less gallantry.

The impossibility of crushing the power of Great Britain by any force whatever was now beginning to be evident even to her most inveterate enemies. In Europe, the utmost efforts of France and Spain were able to effect nothing more than the annual parade of a mighty fleet in the Channel; and this called forth the apparition of a British fleet, so formidable that the enemy never durst attack it. The states of Holland had sent out their force; and this too was opposed by one which, if insufficient to conquer, was at least able to prevent their effecting any thing detrimental to our possessions. In the East Indies

the united powers of the French and Indians had been conquered, and the Dutch settlements had suffered severely.

In the year 1781, however, the British naval power in the West Indies seemed to sink, and some events took place which threatened serious results. This was owing to the great superiority of the combined fleets of France and Spain, by which that of Britain was now so far outnumbered, that it could not achieve any thing of consequence. An ineffectual attempt was made by Admiral Rodney on the island of St Vincents, and an indecisive engagement took place on the 28th of April 1781, between Admiral Hood and the Count de Grasse, the event of which, however, was certainly honourable to Britain, as the French had a superiority of six ships of the line. But the damage done to the British ships having obliged them to retire to Barbadoes to refit, the French availed themselves of the opportunity to effect a descent on the island of Tobago; and although the governor made a gallant resistance, he was at last obliged to surrender. Admiral Rodney had sent Rear-admiral Drake with six sail of the line, three frigates, and some troops, to the assistance of the island; but they were dispatched too late, as the island had capitulated before the intended relief could have reached it.

But the great and decisive stroke, which happened this year, was the capture of Lord Cornwallis, with the division of the army under his command, at Yorktown. This was a great calamity; and other events were sufficiently mortifying. The province of West Florida had been reduced by the Spaniards; Minorca was besieged by them with every prospect of success; the island of St Eustatius had been surprised by the French; and in short every circumstance seemed to proclaim the necessity of putting an end to a war so calamitous and destructive. But all the disasters which had yet happened were insufficient to induce the ministry to abandon their favourite scheme of war with the colonies.

The parliament met on the 27th of November 1781. It has already been stated, that in the year 1780 the ministry had sustained a defeat so signal as seemed to prognosticate the ruin of their power. They had indeed afterwards acquired a majority, and the terror produced by the riots had contributed not a little to the re-establishment of their influence. The remembrance of what had passed, however, most probably induced them to dissolve parliament; whilst the successes at Charlestown and in other parts of America once more gave them a decided majority in both houses. But the disasters of the year 1781 involved them in the most serious difficulties. In the speech from the throne, his majesty observed, that the war was still unhappily prolonged by the restless ambition which had first excited the enemies of his crown and people to commence it. But he should not discharge the trust committed to the sovereign of a free people, nor make a suitable return to his subjects for their zealous and affectionate attachment to him, if he consented to sacrifice, either to his own desire of peace, or to their temporary ease and relief, those essential rights and permanent interests, upon the maintenance and preservation of which the future strength and security of Great Britain must depend. The events of war, he said, had been very unfortunate to his arms in Virginia, having ended in the loss of his forces in that province; but the misfortune in that quarter called loudly for the firm concurrence and assistance of parliament, in order to frustrate the designs of the enemy, which were as prejudicial to the real interests of America as to those of Great Britain. His majesty regretted much the additional burdens which a continuance of the war would unavoidably bring upon his subjects; but he still declared his perfect conviction of the justice of his cause, and hoped that, by the concurrence and support of his parliament, by the valour of his

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A motion for an address of thanks, couched in the usual style, was made in the House of Commons; and it was urged, that a durable and advantageous peace could result only from the firm, vigorous, and unremitting prosecution of the war, and that the present was not the time to relinquish hope, but to resolve upon exertion. The motion, however, was vehemently opposed by Mr Fox and Mr Burke. The latter remarked, that if there could be a greater misfortune than had already been inflicted on this kingdom in the present disgraceful contest, it was hearing men rise up in the great assembly of the nation to vindicate such measures. If the ministry and the parliament were not to be taught by experience,—if neither calamities could make them feel, nor the voice of God make them wise,—what had this fallen and undone country to hope for? A battle might be lost, an enterprise might miscarry, an island might be captured, an army might be lost in the best of causes, and even under a system of vigour and foresight; because the battle, after all the wisdom and bravery of man, was in the hands of heaven; and if either or all of these calamities had happened in a good cause, and under the auspices of a vigilant administration, a brave people would not despair. But it was not so in the present case. Amidst all their sufferings and their misfortunes, they saw nothing so distressing as the weakness or wickedness of their ministers. They seemed still determined to go on, without plan and without foresight, in this war of calamities; for every thing that happened in it was a calamity. He considered them all alike, victories and defeats; towns taken and towns evacuated; new generals appointed, and old generals recalled; they were all alike calamities in his eyes, for they all spurred us on to this fatal business. Victories gave us hopes, defeats made us desperate, and both instigated us to go on. In the course of the debate, it was contended on the part of administration, and particularly by Lord North, that by the address, as originally proposed, the house did not pledge themselves to any continuance of the American war; but this was strongly denied by the gentlemen in opposition. However, the point was at last decided in favour of ministry by a large majority; and the address was then carried as originally proposed. In the House of Peers, a motion for an address similar to that of the House of Commons was made by Lord Southampton, and seconded by Lord Walsingham; but it was vigorously opposed by the Earl of Shelburne and the Duke of Richmond, whilst Lord Stormont and the lord chancellor defended the course adopted by ministers; and the address was ultimately carried by a majority of more than two to one.

A short protest against the address was, however, entered by the Duke of Richmond, the Marquis of Rockingham, and Earl Fitzwilliam; in which they declared that they dissented, for reasons too often urged in vain for the last seven years, against the ruinous prosecution of the unjust war carrying on by his majesty's ministers against the people of North America, and too fatally confirmed by repeated experience, and the disgraceful loss of a second army, to stand in need of repetition.

Though ministers thus succeeded in carrying the addresses in the usual form, they did not meet with equal success in their main design of carrying on the war. After the debate on the number of seamen, which was fixed at one hundred thousand for the ensuing year, Sir James Lowther moved as a resolution of the house, that the war carried on with America had been ineffectual for the purposes for which it was undertaken; and that all further

attempts to reduce that continent by force of arms would be in vain, and must be injurious to this country, by weakening her power of resisting her ancient and confederated enemies. This was supported by a number of arguments interlarded with the most severe reflections on the conduct of ministers. But the motion was opposed by Lord North, who said that, if agreed to by the house, it would put an end to the American war in every shape, and even cripple the hands of government in other respects. It would point out to the enemies of this country what were to be the mode and conduct of the war; and thus inform the enemy in what manner they might best point their operations against this country during the next campaign. With respect to the American war in general, his lordship acknowledged that it had been extremely unfortunate; but he affirmed that the misfortunes and calamities which had attended it, though of a most serious and fatal nature, were matters rather to be deplored and lamented as the events of war, in themselves perpetually uncertain, than to be ascribed to any criminality in ministers. He added, that though he totally disapproved of the motion, yet he was willing to declare it to be his opinion, that it would not be wise nor right to go on with the American war as we had hitherto done; that is, to send armies to traverse from south to north the provinces in their interior parts, as had been done in a late case, and which had failed of producing the intended and desired effect.

On the other hand, General Burgoyne observed, that declaring a design of maintaining posts in America, of the nature of New York, was declaring a design of offensive war; and that such a maintenance of posts would prove an improvident and preposterous mode of warfare. With regard to the American war, the impracticability of it was a sufficient justification for supporting the present motion. But he was now convinced that the principle of the American war was wrong, though he had not been of that opinion when he formerly engaged in the service in America. He had been brought to this conviction by observing the uniform conduct and behaviour of the people of America. Passion, prejudice, and interest, might operate suddenly and partially; but when we saw one principle pervading the whole continent, and the Americans resolutely encountering difficulty and death for a course of years, it must be a strong vanity and presumption in our own minds which could lead us to imagine that they were not in the right. It was reason, and the finger of God alone, which implanted the same sentiment in three millions of people.

After some further debate, Sir James Lowther's motion was rejected by a majority of two hundred and twenty to one hundred and seventy-nine. This, however, was a majority in which the ministry had little reason to exult, as it was sufficiently apparent, from the numbers who voted against administration, that the unfeigned sense of the house was clearly and decisively against any further prosecution of the American war.

Other arguments to the same purpose with those of General Burgoyne, just mentioned, were used in the debate on the army estimates. On the 14th of December, the secretary at war informed the house, that the whole force of the army, including the militia of this kingdom, required for the service of the year 1782, would amount to one hundred and eighty-six thousand two hundred and twenty men, and for this force the parliament had to provide. The sum required for these troops for pay, clothing, and other articles, amounted to four millions two hundred and twenty thousand pounds. This military force exceeded that of the last year by upwards of four thousand men; and the expense was consequently greater by upwards of twenty-nine thousand pounds. The increase was occasioned by the greater number of troops already sent, or then going, to

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Reign of George III. of the East Indies. But the expense of those troops was to be reimbursed by the East India Company. After some further statements relative to the military force of the kingdom, and its expense, had been made by the secretary at war, Colonel Barré declared, that the estimates of the army as then laid before the house were scandalous and evasive. There was a much greater number of non-effective men than was stated in the estimates; in fact, they amounted to a fifth part of the army. The house should also recollect, that the estimates lying on the table did not compose the whole expense of the army; for extraordinary of several millions were yet to come. Neither were the men under the several descriptions given by the secretary at war the whole number of military force employed. Other troops were employed solely at the discretion of the minister, and paid irregularly and unconstitutionally, without the consent or knowledge of the legislature; particularly the provincial corps in America, amounting to nine thousand men in actual service, the statement of which force, though it had been called for from year to year, was never brought into the estimates. Lord George Germaine explained, that the reason why the provincial corps had not been included in the estimates was, that some share of the public money might be spared, by avoiding to vote an establishment for these troops. They were raised and paid in a manner by much the most economical for the nation. Sir George Saville expressed the strongest disapprobation of any further prosecution of the American war, or of raising any more troops for that purpose. General Conway also disapproved entirely of a continuance of the American war in any form. He considered an acknowledgment of the independence of America as a severe misfortune, and a heavy stroke against Great Britain; but of the two evils he would choose the least, and submit to the independence of America rather than persist a day longer in the prosecution of a ruinous war. Notwithstanding these and other arguments, however, the question was carried in favour of ministry by a considerable majority, and the supplies were voted accordingly.

Besides the grand question of the continuance of the American war, several other matters of smaller moment were agitated during this session, particularly the affair of St Eustatius, already mentioned, and an inquiry into the state of the navy. But on these, as on the greater question, the ministry prevailed, though not without a strength of opposition which they had seldom encountered before. A motion for censuring Lord Sandwich was lost only by nineteen; and so general was the desire for a change of administration, that it excited surprise how the ministry still retained their places. Nothing could place in a more striking point of view the detestation in which they were held, than the extreme repugnance to the admission of Lord George Germaine to the dignity of the peerage. On this occasion the affair of Minden was not only brought above board; but, after his actual investiture, and when he had taken his seat in the house, under the title of Lord Viscount Sackville, a debate ensued respecting the dishonour which the peers had sustained by his admission into their house. The Marquis of Caermarthen moved, that it was reprehensible in any minister, and highly derogatory to the honour of the house, to advise the crown to exercise its indisputable right of creating a peer, in favour of a person labouring under the heavy censure of a court-martial; and urged, in support of his motion, that the House of Peers being a court of honour, it behoved them most carefully to preserve that honour uncontaminated, and to endeavour to mark, as forcibly as possible, the disapprobation which they felt at receiving into their assembly, as a brother peer, a person stigmatised in the orderly books of every regiment in the ser-

vice. The Earl of Abingdon could not help conceiving, that although there was not a right of election, there must be a right of exclusion vested in the house, when the admission of any peer happened to be against the sense of its members; that he considered the admission of Lord George Germaine to a peerage as an insufferable indignity to the house, and as an outrageous insult to the people; that it was an indignity to that house, inasmuch as it connected them with one whom every soldier was forbidden to associate withal; and that it was an insult to the people, as the person now raised to the peerage had done nothing to merit honours superior to his fellow-citizens. Lord Sackville defended himself as well as he could against this attack. He denied that he knew by whose advice he had been raised to the peerage; he impugned the justice of the sentence of the court-martial; he represented himself as the victim of an acrimony and hostility without example; he adverted to the time which had elapsed since the sentence of the court-martial was pronounced, and to the political offices which he had since been called to fill; and he contended that his elevation to the dignity of the peerage was virtually a repeal of the proceedings of the military tribunal in question. The Duke of Richmond replied with great ability to the various pleas which Lord Sackville had brought forward in his own justification. In particular, he observed, that their lordships were not ignorant, that the noble viscount rested a considerable part of the vindication of his behaviour at the battle of Minden upon the supposed existence of a striking variation in the orders delivered from Prince Ferdinand to the commander of the cavalry. It was understood that the first order was, that the *cavalry* should advance; and the second, that the *British cavalry* should advance. Yet even under these supposed contradictory orders, it was evident that the noble lord ought to have advanced, and, certainly, the distance being short, he enjoyed a sufficient space of time for obedience to his instructions. Lord Southampton, who delivered one of the messages, was now present in the house; and it would seem that he had no choice on this occasion but to acknowledge, either that he did not properly deliver such orders to the noble viscount, or that the latter, having properly received them, neglected to obey them. But whatever difficulties might have arisen during the endeavours to determine exactly how much time had actually been lost in consequence of the non-compliance of Lord Sackville with the orders which he received, he could with much facility have solved what all the witnesses examined as to this point were not able positively to determine. If, summoned as he was to appear upon the trial, his deposition had been called for, he could have proved, because he held all the while his watch in his hand, and seldom ceased to look at it, that the time lost by the noble viscount delaying to advance, under pretence of receiving such contradictory orders as made it impossible for him to discover whether he ought to advance with the *whole cavalry*, or only with the *British cavalry*, was *one hour and a half*. It was therefore extremely evident that the noble lord had had it in his power to bring up the cavalry from the distance of a mile and a quarter: the consequence of which would have been that, by joining in the battle, they might have rendered the victory more brilliant and decisive. But before the arrival of this cavalry, the engagement was concluded. Such was the testimony, said the duke, which, having had the honour to serve at the battle of Minden under Prince Ferdinand of Brunswick, he must have borne, if, being summoned, the members of the court-martial had thought proper to have examined him on the trial. Under such circumstances, the noble viscount could have but little reason to complain of the sentence of the court-martial, of the orders which

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The ruinous tendency of the American war was now so strikingly apparent, that it became necessary for those who had a just sense of the dangerous situation of the country, and wished well to its interests, to exert their most vigorous efforts to put an end to so fatal a contest. Accordingly, on the 22d of February, a motion was made by General Conway, that an humble address should be presented to his majesty, imploring him to take into his consideration the many and great calamities which had attended this unfortunate war, and to listen to the humble prayer and advice of his faithful Commons, that the war on the continent of North America might no longer be pursued for the impracticable purpose of reducing that country to obedience by force. The motion was seconded by Lord John Cavendish, but vigorously opposed by administration, who had still strength sufficient to carry their point, though only by a single vote, the motion being rejected by a hundred and ninety-four to a hundred and ninety-three.

The increasing power of the opposition now showed that the dowfall of the ministry was at hand. The decision of the last question was considered as a victory gained by the former, and Mr Fox instantly gave notice that the subject would be resumed in a few days under another form. It was accordingly revived on the 27th of February, when a petition from the city of London was presented, soliciting the house to interpose in such a manner as to prevent any further prosecution of the American war; after which General Conway moved, as a resolution, that it was the opinion of the house that the further prosecution of offensive war on the continent of North America, for the purpose of reducing the revolted colonies to obedience by force, would be the means of weakening the efforts of this country against her European enemies, and would tend to increase the mutual enmity so fatal to the interests both of Great Britain and America. It appears from the journals, said the general, that from the days of Edward III. down to the present reign, parliament has at all times given advice to the crown in matters relating to war and peace. In the reign of Richard II. it was frequently done, and also in that of Henry IV. One remarkable instance of this occurred in the reign of Henry VII. when that prince consulted his parliament respecting the propriety of supporting the Duke of Brittany against France, and also of declaring war against the latter; and when he told his parliament that it was for no other purpose than to hear their advice on these heads that he called them together. In the reign of James I. the parliament interfered repeatedly with their advice respecting the palatinate, the match with Spain, and a declaration of war against that power. In the time of Charles I. there were similar interferences; and in the reign of his son Charles II. the parliament made repeated remonstrances, but particularly in 1674 and 1675, on the subject of the alliance with France, which, they urged, ought to be renounced, and at the same time recommended a strict union with the United Provinces. To some of these remonstrances, indeed, answers were returned not very satisfactory; and the parliament were informed that they were exceeding the line of their duty, and encroaching upon the prerogative of the crown. But so little did the Commons of those

days relish these answers, that they addressed the king to *Reign of George III.* know who it was who had advised his majesty to return such answers to their loyal and constitutional remonstrances. In the reign of King William, repeated instances were to be found in the journals, of advice given by parliament relative to the Irish war and the war on the continent. The same thing occurred frequently in the reign of Queen Anne, who, in an address from the parliament, was advised not to make peace with France until Spain should be secured to Austria, and also not to consent to peace until Dunkirk should be demolished. In short, it was manifest from the whole history of English parliaments, that it was ever considered as constitutional for parliament to interfere, whenever it thought proper, in all matters so important as those of peace and war. Other arguments were urged in support of the motion, which was seconded by Lord Althorp; and petitions from the mayor, burgesses, and commonalty of the city of Bristol, and from the merchants, tradesmen, and inhabitants of that city, against the American war, were also read. But in order to evade coming to any immediate determination on the question, a proposition was made by the attorney-general, that a trustee should be entered into with America, and a bill prepared to enable his majesty's ministers to treat on this ground; and under pretence of allowing time for this measure, he moved that the present debate be adjourned for a fortnight. This motion, however, was negatived by a majority of nineteen; and the original motion of General Conway was then put and carried without a division.

The general immediately followed up this victory with a motion for an address to the king, soliciting his majesty to put a stop to any further prosecution of offensive war against the colonies; which was agreed to, and presented to his majesty by the whole house on the 1st of March. On this occasion his majesty answered, that there were no objects nearer to his heart than the happiness and prosperity of his people; that, in pursuance of the advice of the Commons, he should take such measures as might appear conducive to the restoration of harmony between Great Britain and her revolted colonies; and that his efforts should be directed in the most effectual manner against our European enemies, until a peace could be obtained consistent with the interests and permanent welfare of the kingdom. The proceedings of the House of Commons gave general satisfaction; but the royal answer was not thought sufficiently explicit. Accordingly, on the 4th of March, General Conway moved that an humble address be presented to his majesty, to return his majesty the thanks of that house for his gracious answer to their last address; the house being convinced that, in the present circumstances of this country, nothing could so essentially promote those great objects of his majesty's paternal care for his people as the measures which his faithful Commons had most humbly but earnestly recommended to his majesty; and this motion was unanimously agreed to. The general then moved a resolution, that, after the solemn declaration of the opinion of the house, in their humble address presented to his majesty, and his majesty's assurance of his gracious intentions, the house would consider as enemies to his majesty and the country all who should endeavour to frustrate his majesty's paternal care for the happiness of his people, by advising the further prosecution of offensive war on the continent of North America. After some debate this motion was agreed to without a division; and, on the 6th, after a number of papers had been read in the House of Peers relative to the surrender of Earl Cornwallis and the army under his command, the Duke of Chandos moved, first, that, in the opinion of the house, the immediate cause of the capture of the army under Earl Cornwallis in Virginia, was the want of

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In spite of all these efforts, however, the ministry still kept their ground, and with astonishing resolution combated the force of opposition, which was daily increasing. On the 8th of March several resolutions were moved by Lord John Cavendish; one of which bore that the chief cause of the national misfortunes was the want of foresight and ability in his majesty's ministers; and another respected the immense sum expended on the war, which was alleged to be little less than a hundred millions. But all inquiry was still frustrated, and these motions were lost by a majority of ten. Meanwhile, as the unpopularity of Lord North was further increased by the proposal of some new taxes, particularly on soap, the carriage of goods, and places of entertainment, opposition determined if possible to force him to resign; and on the 15th of March it was moved by Sir John Rous that the nation could have no further confidence in the ministers who had the conduct of public affairs. Lord North endeavoured to vindicate his own administration. He affirmed that it could not be declared with truth that the national calamities originated from the measures of the present administration. The repeal of the American stamp-act, and the passing of the declaratory law, took place before his entrance into office. As a private member of parliament he gave his vote in favour of both, but as a minister he was not responsible for either. When he accepted office the times were scarcely less violent than the present. He approached the helm when others had deserted it; and, standing there, he had used his utmost efforts to assist his country. That the American war was just and requisite, and prosecuted for the purpose of supporting and maintaining the rights of the British legislature, was a position for the truth of which he would ever contend, whilst he enjoyed the power of arguing at all upon the subject. As to peace, he not only wished most earnestly for it, but also for the formation of such a ministry as might at once prove acceptable to the country, and cordially co-operate for the welfare and honour of the state. The house at length divided upon the question, when there appeared a majority of nine in favour of administration.

But notwithstanding this decision, it was well known that the ministry could not stand their ground; and, accordingly, four days after, when a motion similar to that by Sir John Rous was about to be made by the Earl of Surrey, Lord North informed the house that his majesty had come to a full determination to change his ministers; and that, in fact, those persons who had for some time conducted the public affairs were no longer his majesty's ministers. They were not now to be considered as men holding the reins of government and transacting measures of state, but merely as performing their official duty till other ministers were appointed to take their places. In consequence of the declaration of Lord North, the Earl of Surrey agreed to waive his intended motion, and, after some further debate, the house adjourned. And thus an end was put to an administration which had long been obnoxious to a great part of the nation, and whose removal contributed very much to allay those ferments by which every part of the British dominions had been agitated. Peace now became as much the object of ministry as war had been formerly. But before we proceed to any account of the negotiations for that desirable object, it will be necessary to notice the military events which disposed the other belligerent powers to an accommodation.

The ill success of Britain in America has already been taken notice of. The disaster of Cornwallis had produced a sincere desire of peace with America; but this could not be accomplished without making peace with France also; and that power was still haughty and elated with success. Minorca had now fallen into the hands of the Spaniards; and though the capture of a few miserable invalids, attended with such extreme difficulty as the Spaniards had experienced, ought rather to have intimidated them than otherwise, they now projected the most important conquests. Nothing less than the entire reduction of the British West India islands was contemplated by the allies; and indeed there was too much reason to suppose that this object was within their reach. In the beginning of the year 1782 the islands of Nevis and St Christophers were obliged to surrender to Count de Grasse the French admiral, and the Marquis de Bouillé, who had already signalized himself by several exploits; and Jamaica was marked out as the next victim. But the end of all these aspiring hopes was fast approaching. The advantages hitherto gained by the French in their naval engagements with the British fleet had proceeded entirely from their keeping at a great distance during the time of action, and from their good fortune and dexterity in gaining the wind. At last the French admiral De Grasse, prompted by his natural courage, or induced by circumstances, determined, after an indecisive action on the 9th of April 1782, to risk a close engagement with his formidable antagonist, Admiral Rodney. The action was brought on by the count shortening sail to prevent the loss of a disabled ship, by parting with which he might have avoided the disaster that followed. This memorable engagement took place off the island of Dominica, three days after the former. The British fleet consisted of thirty-seven ships of the line, and the French of thirty-four. The engagement commenced at seven o'clock in the morning, and continued with unremitting fury till half past six in the evening. It is said that no other signal was made by the admiral but the general one for action, and that for close combat. Sir George Rodney was on board the *Formidable*, a ship of ninety guns; and the Count de Grasse was on board the *Ville de Paris*, a ship of a hundred and ten guns, which had been presented to the French king by the city of Paris. In the course of the action, the *Formidable* fired nearly eighty broadsides; and for three hours the admiral's ship was involved in so thick a cloud of smoke that it was almost invisible to the officers and men of the rest of the fleet. The van division of the British fleet was commanded by Sir Samuel Hood, and the rear division by Rear-admiral Drake; and both these officers greatly distinguished themselves in the course of the action. But the decisive turn on this memorable day was given by a bold manœuvre of the *Formidable*, which, taking advantage of a favourable shift in the wind, passed through the French line, and threw them into irretrievable confusion. The first French ship that struck was the *César*, of seventy-four guns, the captain of which fought nobly, and fell in the action. When she struck she had scarcely a foot of canvas without a shot hole. Unfortunately, soon after she was taken possession of, she took fire by accident, and blew up, when about two hundred Frenchmen perished in her, together with an English lieutenant and ten English seamen. The *Glorieux* and the *I Hector*, both seventy-four gun ships, were also taken by the British fleet; together with the *Ardent* of sixty-four guns; and a French seventy-four gun ship was also sunk in the engagement. It was almost dark when the *Ville de Paris*, on board of which the Count de Grasse had fought gallantly, struck her colours. Five thousand five hundred troops were on board the French fleet, and the havoc among them was very great, as well as among the

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French seamen. The British lost in killed and wounded about a thousand men. Captain Blair, who commanded the Anson, and several other officers, were killed in the action; and Lord Robert Manners, who commanded the Resolution, died of his wounds on his return home. It was universally allowed that in this engagement the French, notwithstanding their defeat, behaved with the greatest valour. De Grasse himself did not surrender till four hundred of his people were killed, and only the admiral and two others remained without a wound. The captain of the Caesar, after his ensign-staff was shot away, and the ship almost battered to pieces, caused his colours to be nailed to the mast, and thus continued fighting till he was killed. The vessel, when taken, was a mere wreck. Other French officers behaved with equal resolution. The valour of the British requires no encomium; it was proved by their success on this glorious day.¹

This victory was a very fortunate circumstance both for the interest and the reputation of the British admiral. Before this event the new ministry had appointed Admiral Pigot to supersede him in the command in the West Indies; and it was understood that they meant to set on foot a rigid inquiry into the transactions at St Eustatius. But the splendour of this victory put an end to all thoughts of the kind; he received the thanks of both houses of parliament for his services; and he was created an English peer, by the title of Baron Rodney of Rodney Stoke, in the county of Somerset. Sir Samuel Hood was also created Baron Hood of Catferrington, in the kingdom of Ireland; and Rear-admiral Drake and Captain Aiffek were created barons of Great Britain. Some attempts were also made, in the House of Commons, to procure a vote of censure against the new ministry for having recalled Lord Rodney; but the motions for this purpose were rejected by a large majority.

Though the designs of the French against Jamaica were now effectually frustrated, the victory was not followed by those beneficial results which many had expected from it; and none of the British islands which had been taken by the French in the West Indies were afterwards recaptured. Some of the ships which had been taken by Admiral Rodney were also lost at sea, particularly the *Ville de Paris*, *Glorieux*, and *Hector*; and a British man of war, the *Centaure*, of seventy-four guns, foundered at sea on the 24th of September 1782. The Jamaica homeward-bound fleet was also dispersed by a hurricane off the banks of Newfoundland, when the *Ramillies* of seventy-four guns and several merchantmen foundered. About this time the British navy sustained a very considerable loss at home, by the *Royal George*, of a hundred guns, being upset and sunk at Portsmouth. This melancholy accident, which happened on the 29th of August, was occasioned by a partial heel given to the ship, in order to cleanse and sweeten her. The guns on one side being removed to the other, or at least the greater part of them, and her lower deck ports not being lashed in, the ship thwarted on the tide with a squall from the north-west, filled with water, and sunk in the space of about three minutes. Admiral Kempenfelt, a number of other officers, and upwards of four hundred seamen and two hun-

dred women, besides children, perished on this occasion. The prosecution of the war was thus attended with disasters and difficulties to all parties. The signal defeat above mentioned not only secured the island of Jamaica against the attempts of the French, but prevented them from entertaining any other project than that of distressing commerce.

In the beginning of May an expedition was undertaken to the remote and inhospitable regions of Hudson's Bay; and though no force existed there capable of making any resistance, a seventy-four gun ship and two thirty-six gun frigates were employed in the service. All the people in that part of the world either fled or surrendered at the first summons. The loss of the Hudson's Bay Company, on this occasion, amounted to £500,000; but the humanity of the French commander was conspicuous, in leaving a sufficient quantity of provisions and stores of all kinds for the use of the British who had fled at his approach. Another expedition was undertaken by the Spaniards to the Bahama Islands, where an equally easy conquest was obtained. The island of Providence, defended only by three hundred and sixty men, could make no resistance when attacked by five thousand. An honourable capitulation was granted by the victors, who likewise treated the garrison with kindness. Some settlements on the Mosquito shore were also taken by the Spaniards; but the Bay-men, assisted by their negroes, bravely retook some of them; and having formed a little army of the Indians in those parts, headed by Colonel Despard, they attacked and carried the posts on the Black River, making prisoners of about eight hundred Spanish troops. The greatest disaster which befel this power, however, was their failure before Gibraltar, which happened in the month of September 1782, and was accompanied with such circumstances of horror and destruction as evinced the absurdity of persisting in the enterprise. Thus all parties felt that it was high time to put an end to the contest. The affair of Cornwallis had shown that it was impossible for Britain to conquer America; the defeat of De Grasse had rendered the reduction of the British possessions in the West Indies impracticable by the French; the final repulse before Gibraltar, and its relief afterwards by the British fleet, put an end to that favourite enterprise, in which almost the whole strength of Spain had been employed; and the engagement of the Dutch with Admiral Parker showed them that nothing could be gained by a naval war with Britain.

The events which led to the removal of Lord North and the other ministers who had so long directed public measures in this kingdom have been already noticed. On this occasion it was said that his majesty expressed considerable agitation of mind at being in a manner compelled to make an entire change in his councils; for the members in opposition would form no coalition with any of the old ministry, the lord chancellor only excepted. On the 30th of March 1782, the Marquis of Rockingham was appointed first lord of the treasury; Lord John Cavendish chancellor of the exchequer; the Earl of Shelburne and Mr Fox principal secretaries of state; Lord Camden president of the council; the Duke of Richmond master of the ordnance; the Duke of Grafton lord privy seal; Ad-

¹ The Count de Grasse, after his defeat, was received on board the *Barfleur* man of war, and afterwards landed on the island of Jamaica, where he was treated with great respect. After continuing there some time, he was conveyed to England, and accommodated with a suite of apartments at the royal hotel in Pall-mall. His sword, which he had delivered up, according to the usual custom, to Admiral Rodney, was returned to him by the king. This etiquette enabled him to appear at court, where he was received by their majesties and the royal family in a manner suitable to his rank. From the time of his arrival in London to his departure, which was on the 12th of August 1782, he was visited by many persons of the first fashion and distinction, and was much employed in paying visits to the great officers of state and some of the principal nobility of the kingdom, by whom he was entertained in a very sumptuous and hospitable style. He received, indeed, every mark of civility which the British nation could bestow; and was treated with much respect even by the common people, from the opinion that was generally entertained of his valour and merit.

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miral Keppel first lord of the admiralty; General Conway commander in chief of all the forces in Great Britain; Mr Thomas Townshend secretary at war; Mr Burke paymaster of the forces; and Colonel Barré treasurer of the navy. Other offices and honours were likewise conferred on different members of the opposition; and some were raised to the peerage, particularly Admiral Keppel, Sir Fletcher Norton, and Mr Dunning.

The first business in which the new ministry engaged was taking the necessary measures for effecting a general peace. No time, in fact, was lost in the pursuit of this great object; and the empress of Russia, having offered her mediation, in order to restore peace between Great Britain and Holland, Mr Secretary Fox, within two days after his entrance in office, wrote a letter to Simolin, the Russian minister in London, informing him that his majesty was ready to enter into negotiations for peace, on the basis of the treaty of 1674; and that, in order to facilitate such negotiations, he was willing to give immediate orders for a suspension of hostilities, if the States-general were disposed to agree to that measure. But the states of Holland did not appear inclined to enter into a separate peace; nor perhaps would it have been agreeable to the principles of sound policy if they had consented to any propositions of this kind. But immediately after the change of ministry, negotiations for a general peace were commenced at Paris; and Mr Grenville was invested with full powers to treat with all the parties at war, and to propose the independence of the thirteen United Provinces of North America in the first instance, instead of making it a condition of a general treaty. Admiral Digby and General Carleton were also directed to acquaint the American congress with the pacific views of the British court, and with the offer made to acknowledge the independence of the United States.

But before this work of pacification had made any considerable progress, the new ministry sustained an irreparable loss by the death of the Marquis of Rockingham in July 1782. Even before this event, considerable apprehensions were entertained of their want of union; but the death of the nobleman just mentioned occasioned an absolute dissolution. The Earl of Shelburne, who succeeded him as first lord of the treasury, proved so disagreeable to some of his colleagues, that Mr Fox, Lord John Cavendish, Mr Burke, Mr Frederick Montague, and two or three others, instantly resigned. Others, however, though little attached to the earl, continued in their places; and his lordship found means to attach to his interest Mr William Pitt, son to the late Earl of Chatham. Though then in an early stage of life, that gentleman had already distinguished himself greatly in parliament, and was now prevailed upon to accept the office of chancellor. The succeeding members of the cabinet were at pains to explain to the house their motives for taking this step, which were in general a suspicion that matters would be managed differently from the plan which they had proposed while in office, and particularly that American independence would not be acknowledged. But this was positively denied at the time, and with truth, as appeared by the event. There appeared, indeed, a duplicity in the conduct of the Earl of Shelburne not easily to be accounted for. Even after it had been intimated by General Carleton and Admiral Digby that the independence of the United Provinces would be conceded by his majesty in the first instance, instead of making it a condition of a provisional treaty, his lordship said, that "he had formerly been, and still was, of opinion, that whenever the independence of America was acknowledged by the British parliament, the sun of England's glory was set for ever." This had been the opinion of Lord Chatham and other able statesmen; nevertheless, as the majority of the cabinet were of a contrary way of thinking, he acquiesced

in the measure, though his ideas were different. He did not wish to see England's sun set for ever, but looked for a spark to be left which might light us up a new day. He wished to God that he had been deputed to congress, that he might plead the cause of America as well as Britain. He was convinced that the liberties of the former were gone as soon as the independence of the states was allowed; and he concluded his speech with observing, that he was not afraid of his expressions being repeated in America, there being great numbers there who were of the same opinion with him, and perceived ruin and independence linked together.

If his lordship really expected that by a flourish of rhetoric he could persuade the Americans to abandon a system for which they had fought so desperately, he greatly overrated his own powers, and mistook the men with whom he had to deal. No obstruction, however, arose to the general pacification. As early as the 30th of November 1782, the articles of a provisional treaty were settled between Britain and America. By these it was stipulated, that the people of the United States should continue to enjoy, without molestation, the right to take fish of every kind on the grand bank, and on all the other banks of Newfoundland; and that they should continue to exercise the same privilege in the Gulf of St Lawrence, and at every other place in the sea where the inhabitants used heretofore to fish. They were likewise to have the liberty to take fish of every kind on such parts of the coast of Newfoundland as British seamen resort to, but not to cure or dry them on that island. They were to enjoy the privilege of fishing on the coasts, bays, and creeks of the other dominions of his Britannic majesty in America; and the American fishermen were permitted to cure and dry fish in any of the unsettled bays, harbours, and creeks of Nova Scotia, Magdalen Islands, and Labrador. But it was agreed that, after such places should be settled, this right could not be legally put in practice without the consent of the inhabitants and proprietors of the ground. It was arranged that creditors upon either side should meet with no impediment in the prosecution of their claims; that the congress should earnestly recommend it to the legislatures of the respective states, to provide for the restitution of all estates and properties which had been confiscated belonging to real British subjects, and of the estates and properties of persons resident in districts in the possession of his majesty's arms, and who had not borne arms against the United States; that persons of any other description should have free liberty to go to any part whatsoever of any of the thirteen United States, and remain in it for twelve months unmolested in their endeavours to recover such of their estates, rights, and properties, as might not have been confiscated; that the congress should earnestly recommend to the several states a revision of all acts or laws regarding the premises, so as to render them perfectly consistent, not only with justice and equity, but with that spirit of conciliation which, on the return of the blessing of peace, should universally prevail; that no future confiscations should be made, nor prosecutions commenced against any person, or body of men, on account of the part which he or they had taken in the war; that those who might be in confinement on account of such a charge at the time of the ratification of the treaty in America should be immediately set at liberty; that all hostilities by sea and land should immediately cease; that prisoners on both sides should be set at liberty; that his Britannic majesty should expeditiously, and without committing destruction of any sort, withdraw all his armies, garrisons, and fleets, from every port, place, and harbour, of the United States; that the navigation of the river Mississippi, from its source to the ocean, should remain for ever free

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and open to the subjects of Great Britain and the citizens of the United States; and, finally, that if any place or territory belonging to Great Britain or to the United States should be conquered by the arms of either before the arrival of the provisional articles in America, it should be restored without compensation or difficulty.

In the treaty between Great Britain and France it was agreed that Newfoundland should remain with England, as before the war; and, to prevent disputes about boundaries, it was arranged that the French fishery should commence at Cape St John on the eastern side, and, sweeping round by the north, should have for its boundary Cape Ray on the western side. The islands of St Pierre and Miquelon, which had been taken in September 1778, were ceded in full right to France. Great Britain was to restore to France the island of St Lucia, and to cede and guarantee to her that of Tobago; and France was to surrender to Great Britain the islands of Grenada and the Grenadines, St Vincent, Dominica, St Christophers, Nevis, and Montserrat. The river Senegal and its dependencies were to be given to France; and the island of Goree was also to be restored. Fort James and the river Gambia were guaranteed to his Britannic majesty; and the gum trade was to remain in the same condition as before the commencement of hostilities. The king of Great Britain was to restore to his most Christian majesty all the establishments which belonged to him at the breaking out of the war on the coast of Orixá and in Bengal; and became bound to secure to the subjects of France in that part of India, and on the coasts of Orixá, Coromandel, and Malabar, a safe, free, and independent trade, either as individuals, or under the direction of a company. Pondicherry, as well as Karikal, was to be restored to France; the two districts of Valanour and Bahour, round Pondicherry, and the four contiguous Magans round Karikal, were also to be given up; and the French were again to enter into the possession of Mahe, and of the comptoir at Surat. The allies of France and Great Britain were to be invited to accede to the present pacification; and in the event of their disinclination, no assistance on either side was to be given to them. Great Britain renounced all claims to Dunkirk. Commissioners were to be respectively appointed by both nations to inquire into the state of commerce, and to concert new arrangements of trade on the footing of mutual convenience. And all conquests on either side, in any part of the world whatsoever, not mentioned nor alluded to in the treaty, were to be restored without difficulty, and without requiring compensation. The prisoners on each side were also to be released without ransom, upon the ratification of the treaty, and on paying the debts which they might have contracted during their captivity; and each crown was respectively to reimburse the sums which had been advanced for the maintenance of their prisoners, by the country where they had been detained, according to attested and authentic vouchers. These preliminary articles of peace were concluded at Versailles on the 20th of January 1783, between Mr Alleyne Fitzherbert, minister plenipotentiary on the part of his Britannic majesty, and Charles Gravier, Comte de Vergennes, the minister plenipotentiary on the part of the king of France.

At the same time preliminary articles of peace between Great Britain and Spain were also concluded at Versailles between Mr Fitzherbert and the Conde d'Aranda, the minister plenipotentiary of the Spanish monarch. His Catholic majesty was to continue in possession of the island of Minorca, and to retain West Florida; whilst East Florida was to be ceded to him by the king of Great Britain. Eighteen months from the ratification of the definitive treaty were to be allowed to the subjects of Britain

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who had settled in the island of Minorca and in the two Floridas, to sell their estates, recover their debts, and transport their persons and effects, without being restrained upon account of their religion, or on any other pretence whatsoever, except that of debts and prosecutions for crimes. The liberty of cutting logwood, in a district of which the boundaries were to be ascertained; without molestation or disturbance of any kind whatsoever, was granted to Great Britain. The king of Spain was to restore the islands of Providence and the Bahamas, in the condition in which they were when conquered by his arms. And all other conquests of territories and countries upon either side, not included in the present articles, were also to be mutually restored without difficulty or compensation.

But no sooner were these articles ratified and laid before parliament, than they excited the most vehement declamations against ministry. Never had the administration of Lord North himself been arraigned with more asperity of language. The ministry defended themselves with resolution, but found it impossible to avoid the censure of parliament. An address without any amendment was indeed carried in the House of Lords by a considerable majority; but it was lost in the lower house. On the 21st of February some resolutions were moved in the House of Commons by Lord George Cavendish, of which the most remarkable were, that the concessions made by Britain were greater than its adversaries had a right to expect; and that the house would take the case of the American loyalists into consideration. The last motion indeed his lordship consented to waive, but the rest were carried against ministry.

These proceedings, however, made no alteration with regard to the treaty, which had already been ratified by all the contending powers, the Dutch only excepted. The terms offered the latter were a renewal of the treaty of 1674; which, though highly advantageous, they at that time positively declined. They afterwards, however, made an offer to accept the terms which they had formerly rejected; but the compliment was then returned by a refusal on the part of Britain. When the preliminary articles had been settled with the courts of France and Spain, a suspension of arms with Holland ensued; but though the definitive arrangements with the other powers were finally concluded by the month of September, it was not till then that the preliminary articles were settled with Holland. The terms were a general restitution of all places taken on both sides during the war, excepting only the settlement of Negapatnam in the East Indies, which was to remain in the hands of Britain, unless an equivalent should be given on the part of Holland. The navigation of the eastern seas was to remain free and unmolested to all British shipping. The remaining articles concerned only the exchange of prisoners, and such other matters as are common to all treaties.

Thus an end was put to the most dangerous war in which Britain had ever engaged, and out of which, notwithstanding the powerful combination against her, she came superior to all her enemies. The politicians who had imagined that the prosperity of Britain depended in a great measure on her colonies were singularly mistaken. This was shown at the time, and has been completely confirmed by subsequent experience. For a number of years she had not only been deprived of these colonies, but opposed by them with all their force; yet though attacked at the same time by three of the greatest powers in Europe, and looked upon with an invidious eye by all the rest, the damage done to her enemies still greatly exceeded that which she had received. Their trade by sea was almost ruined; and on comparing the loss of ships on both sides, the balance in favour of Britain was twenty-eight ships of the line and thirty-seven frigates, carrying in all near two thousand

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guns. Notwithstanding this, however, the state of the nation appears to have been really such that a much longer continuance of the war would have been impracticable.

Having thus given as full an account as our limits admit of the great national events till the conclusion of the peace in 1783, we shall now advert to some others, which, though of sufficient importance to deserve notice, could not be previously introduced without interrupting the narrative. On the 6th of December 1776 a fire broke out in the rope-house of the dock-yard at Portsmouth, which totally consumed it, but without doing any very material damage. For some time the affair passed as an accident; but in clearing away the rubbish a tin-box was found with a wooden bottom, containing matches which had been lighted, and underneath was a vessel filled with spirits of wine. The fire, however, not having been properly supplied with air, had gone out of itself before it touched the spirits of wine; for if it had caught fire, all the stores in the storehouse, sufficient to fit out fifty sail of the line, would have been destroyed. In the beginning of the year 1777 a fire happened at Bristol, which consumed six or seven warehouses; and by the discovery of machines similar to those already mentioned, it was evident that the fire had not been accidental. The terror of the public was now greatly increased, and violent mutual accusations were thrown out by the ministerial and popular parties. On this point, however, they soon came to a right understanding, by the discovery of the author of all this mischief.

This was one James Aitken, otherwise called John the Painter, a native of Edinburgh. Having from his early years been accustomed to a vagrant life, to which indeed his profession naturally led him, he had gone through a variety of adventures. He had enlisted as a soldier, deserted, and, when pinched by want, made no scruple of betaking himself to the highway, or of committing thefts. Having traversed a great part of America, he had there imbibed to such a degree the prejudices against Britain, that he at last took the extraordinary resolution of singly overturning the whole power of the nation; an achievement which he was to accomplish by setting fire to the dockyards at Portsmouth and Plymouth, and afterwards to the principal trading towns of the kingdom. With this view he carefully inspected the docks and other places on which his attempts were to be made, in order to ascertain in what manner they were guarded, which he found in general as negligent as he could desire: and had there not been some deficiency in the construction of his machines, he must have done incredible mischief; for as his attempts were always detected by the discovery of his machines, it is evident that he had met with abundance of opportunities. For some time the affair at Portsmouth, as has already been mentioned, passed for an accident. It was soon recollected, however, that a person had been seen loitering about the rope-house, and had even been locked up a night in it; that he had worked as a painter, and taken frequent opportunities of getting into that house, and other buildings in the yard. These circumstances exciting a suspicion that he was the incendiary, he was traced to different places, and at last found in a prison, to which he had been committed on a charge of burglary. On his examination, however, he behaved with an assurance and apparent consciousness of innocence which almost disconcerted those who were appointed to examine him; but at last he was deceived into a confession by another painter, a native of America, who pretended to compassionate his case. Evidence was thus procured against him, but he still maintained his character to the last, rejecting and invalidating the testimony of his perfidious friend, on account of his baseness and treachery. He received his sentence with great fortitude, but at length confessed his guilt, and left

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some directions for preventing the dock-yards and magazines from being exposed to similar danger in future. Thus it appeared that the whole of the alarm of treason and American incendiaries was occasioned by the political enthusiasm of a wretched vagabond, who chose to stake his life on the wild venture we have described.

Still, however, it appeared that the French court were very well acquainted with many particulars relating to the state of this kingdom, and the movements of our squadrons, which ought by all means to have been kept secret. These treacherous communications were first detected in the month of June 1780. One Ratcliffe, master of a cutter, disclosed that he had been hired by a fellow called Roger, to carry packets to France, for which he was to be paid £20 each time, and to have £100 besides at a certain period; but apprehending that he might incur some danger by continuing this employment, he gave information of what was going on to one Mr Steward, a merchant at Sandwich, by whom his last packet was carried to the secretary of state. After being opened and sealed up again, it was returned, and he was directed to carry it to France as formerly. Several succeeding packets were treated in the same fashion, though it was some time before Ratcliffe saw the principal party concerned; but this was at last accomplished by his complaining to Roger that he had not been paid the £100 according to promise. A meeting having been procured, it was found that the person who furnished intelligence to the enemy was one Mr. Henri de la Motte, a French gentleman then residing in London. On searching his house, no papers of any consequence were found; but being absent when the messengers first arrived, he, on his return, threw some out of his pockets, unperceived, as he thought, by any body. The papers, however, were taken up by the messengers, and gave plain indications not only of a treasonable correspondence with the enemy, but also of his being connected with one Henry Lutterloch, a German, who then resided at Wickham near Portsmouth. This person being also apprehended, not only made a full disclosure of the treasonable correspondence with France, but gave abundant proofs of being himself one of the most depraved of mankind, and lost to every feeling excepting the desire of accumulating wealth. His evidence, however, and other strong circumstances, were sufficient to convict M. de la Motte, who was accordingly executed, though the king remitted the more dreadful part of his sentence. During his trial, and on every other occasion, he behaved in such a manner as showed him to be an accomplished gentleman, and not only excited the compassion, but the admiration, of every one who saw him.

During the whole course of the war, only one other person was detected in any act of treason; and he appears to have been actuated merely by mercenary motives. This was a man called David Tyrie, a native of Edinburgh. Having been bred in the mercantile line, and engaged in a number of speculations with a view to gain money, in all of which he had discovered considerable abilities, he at last engaged in the more dangerous one of conveying intelligence to the French, of the ships of war fitted out in Britain, the time of their sailing, and other particulars. For this he was apprehended in the month of February 1782. The discovery was made by means of one Mrs Askew, who passed for Tyrie's wife. This person having delivered a bundle of papers in a hurry to a school-mistress, desired her not to show them to any one; the latter, however, not only inspected them herself, but showed them to another, by whom they were sent to the secretary at war. By this, and another packet discovered by William James, who had been employed to carry it to France, Tyrie was convicted of treasonable correspondence with the enemy, and executed in the month of August 1782.

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Reign of George III. On the whole, it appears that notwithstanding the excessive virulence of parties, which even proceeded so far as to produce duels between some members of parliament, neither entertained any designs against what was believed to be the true interest of the nation. The one seems to have regarded its honour too much, and to have been inclined to sacrifice even its existence to that favourite notion; the other perhaps regarded the national honour too little; nor indeed could an advantageous idea have been formed of the spirit of the nation which should have submitted to the dismemberment of its empire without a struggle. The event, however, has shown, that the loss of the colonies, so far from being a disadvantage, has been the very reverse. The commerce of Britain, instead of being dependent on America, has arrived at a much greater height than ever; whilst the consequent increase of wealth has enabled the nation to support that enormous debt, part of which was contracted, first in defending, and then in attempting to conquer, the colonies.

CHAP. XIV.

REIGN OF GEORGE III.—INTERMEDIATE PERIOD.

Nature of the opposition to Lord Shelburne's administration.—State of Parties.—Coalition between Lord North and Mr Fox.—Coalition Ministry.—Taxes.—Mr Pitt's Motion for Reform in Parliament.—Irish Independence Bill.—Mr Dundas's India Bill.—Mr Pitt's Office-Reform Bill.—Petition of the American Loyalists.—Establishment of the Prince of Wales.—New Inventions.—Opinion of the Public respecting the Coalition.—Mr Fox's India Bill.—Report of the Secret Committee.—Sir T. Rumbold and Mr Hastings accused by Mr Dundas.—Report of the Select Committee.—Debates on Mr Fox's Bills.—First Bill carried in the Commons.—His Majesty's disapprobation intimated.—Rejected in the Lords.—Change of Ministry, and accession of Mr Pitt to Office.—Contest between the Crown and the House of Commons.—Resolutions of the House against the new Ministry.—Mr Pitt's Bill for regulating India rejected.—Further Disputes.—The Public take part with the Administration.—New Coalition proposed.—Mr Pitt refuses to resign, and the King also refuses to dismiss the Minister.—Dissolution of Parliament.—Elections.—Total Defeat of the Coalition.—Consequences.—New Parliament.—Mr Pitt's new India Bill.—Debates on this Measure.—Finance.—Restoration of the Forfeited Estates.—Westminster Election.—Nabob of Arcot's Debts.—Nature of these.—Exposition of Mr Burke.—Mr Pitt's Plan of Parliamentary Reform.—Rejected in *limine*.—Finance.—Duke of Richmond's Fortifications.—Regulation of Public Offices.—Irish Propositions.—Foreign Affairs.—League to protect the German Constitution.—Commercial Treaties.—Britain and Hanover.—Debate on the Duke of Richmond's Plans.—Militia Laws.—Mr Pitt's Sinking Fund.—Discussion thereon.—Fallacy of the Scheme.—Wine Duties.—Best size and form of Ships of War.—General State of the Empire.—India.—Mr Burke's Proceedings against Mr Hastings.—Mr Pitt's India Bill amended by Mr Dundas's act.—Attempt against the King's Life by Margaret Nicholson.—Commercial Treaty with France.—Debates thereon.—Mr Pitt's Defence of the Treaty.—Consolidation of Taxes.—Corporation and Test Acts.—Prince of Wales's Debts.—Accusation of Mr Hastings.—Mr Sheridan's celebrated Speech on the Begum Charge.—Articles of Impeachment prepared.—Impeachment Voted.—Reflections on this Proceeding.—Affairs of Holland.—State of Parties in the United Provinces.—Intervention of the Neighbouring States.—Prussians invade Holland.—Meeting of Parliament.—Conduct of the Government in regard to Holland approved of by the Opposition.—Naval Promotions, and Debates thereon.—Act against the Exportation of Wool.—State of the Revenue.—Compensation to the American Loyalists.—Slave Trade.—Bill for Regulating the Transportation of Negroes.—Indian Affairs.—Declaratory Bill.—Trial of Mr Hastings.—Burke's Oration of Five Days.—Mode of Procedure.—Accusation of Sir Elijah Impey.—State of European Politics.—Sweden.—Wars between Sweden and Russia.—Danish Invasion of Sweden.—Interposition of the British Envoy, and Recall of the Danish Troops.—The King's Illness.—Agency Question.—Debates and Proceedings connected therewith.—Manoeuvring and Procrastination of

the Ministry.—The Prince's Correspondence.—Regency Bill passed.—Recovery of the King.—Conduct of the Irish Parlia.—George III. ment respecting the Regency.—The Slave Trade.—Mr Wilberforce's Propositions.—Jealous Support of Mr Pitt.—Mr Addington chosen Speaker of the House of Commons.—New Taxes.—Extension of the Excise Laws.—Proposed Repeal of Religious Tests and Penal Statutes.—Indian Affairs.—Trial of Mr Hastings.—Affair of Nundomar.

It has been already remarked, that in the debates in the House of Commons upon the treaties concluded under Lord Shelburne's administration, by which the American war was brought to a close, the terms of those treaties were disapproved of by the majority of the house; and this disapprobation was expressed by carrying an amendment to the ministerial motion for an address of thanks to his majesty. It does not appear, however, that the nation at large disapproved of the conditions of the peace. All ranks of men had long been weary of the war with the colonies, and desirous to relinquish every claim of sovereignty over them; and this point being decided, other objects of negotiation were of too little importance to excite any great degree of public interest. The majority which now voted against administration consisted of men brought together by views little connected with the accomplishment of any patriotic object, and in a manner which well merits the attention of the historian.

The death of the Marquis of Rockingham left in a very disjointed state the party which had opposed the American war. Lord Shelburne's administration appears to have been formed under the influence of the crown alone, to the exclusion of Lord North and his friends, as well as of Mr Fox and the other principal members of the former opposition. Thus an attempt appears to have been made to govern the kingdom without supporting the royal prerogative by the strength of any political party. An event, however, occurred of a nature undoubtedly not a little dangerous to the constitution; but being new in itself, it seems not to have been foreseen by speculative writers upon the British government.

The American war had been conducted with a profusion of expense totally unexampled in former contests. The service of government became of itself an immense object of trade, an employment in which thousands of all kinds of artists, manufacturers, and merchants, engaged; and hence the patronage enjoyed by the minister for the time was proportionally extensive. The natural consequence was, that he and his friends, with a long train of their friends and dependents, were enabled to accumulate great wealth, and rise to the enjoyment of influence in all parts of the country. The impracticability of accomplishing the great object of the war at last led to its termination; and the minister who had been unsuccessful in conducting it was dismissed, as had usually been done upon such occasions in Britain, to make way for his antagonists, who had long recommended, and who could, therefore, with a better grace adopt, measures of pacification. But the dismissal of the minister and his friends from their official situations did not at once destroy their political importance in the state. They constituted a very formidable body of men in both houses of parliament; and such was the influence which the possession of power had conferred upon Lord North, that to the latest period of his life he was understood to be able to carry along with him, at all times, upwards of forty votes in the House of Commons; a power which was evidently too dangerous to belong to a subject of a free state, and so indeed it proved by the event to be.

Mr Fox, and the other statesmen who had led the opposition to Lord North's measures during the American war, but who had retired from administration on the accession of Lord Shelburne to the treasury after the death

Reign of George III. of the Marquis of Rockingham, appear to have at last become weary of an unprofitable opposition, and desirous upon almost any terms of entering into the enjoyment of power. But their party, though possessing very great talents, was too weak in point of numbers to be able to contend against the minister of the day, supported by the whole patronage of the crown. On the other hand, though Lord North and his friends formed in both houses of parliament a very formidable phalanx, still they also were too few to contend against ministerial influence, and the party usually called the "king's friends," while from the natural course of things they might also expect that their numbers would gradually diminish. They had risen by attaching themselves to the service of the state; and the changes which mortality produces would by degrees enable the existing government to supplant them by a new race of ambitious men. In this state of matters the two opposition parties, led by Lord North and Mr Fox, thought fit to come to an agreement to unite their strength, and thus, by forming a complete majority in parliament, to impose themselves upon the sovereign as his ministers. In this way the majority was produced which opposed Lord Shelburne's administration, and it has since been known under the appellation of the Coalition.

The effect produced upon the public mind by this coalition was extremely important; and it is probable that even yet its consequences are not fully understood. In almost any other country than Britain, and indeed at many former periods of our history, such a combination of powerful men, possessing a predominance in the legislature, could not have failed to prove fatal to the constitution, and destructive of the internal tranquility of the state. If the king gave way to such an aristocratical combination, and received its leaders into his service, it was to be feared that the whole patronage of the crown, together with the authority of the royal name, and the majority which they already possessed in the other branches of the legislature, might enable them to fortify themselves by new institutions and laws, and render them independent both of the king and people. No hope appeared from a dissolution of parliament, as the public at large were not at once aware of the critical situation to which the constitution had been brought by the Coalition; and a prince of a rash character would, in such circumstances, perhaps have seen no other resource for the protection of his prerogative, than to attempt to govern without a parliament, the majority of which were evidently acting, not the part of dutiful subjects or faithful representatives of the people, but of individuals conspiring to seize, for their own private advantage, the emoluments and authority of office. This judgment will not probably be regarded as too severe, when it is considered, that at the period in question there existed no pretext for opposition to the crown founded upon any complaint of the nation against the abuse of its prerogatives; and that the individuals who now coalesced could not have been induced to do so upon any pretence of political principle. Lord North, the steady assertor and supporter of the royal prerogative, and the conductor of the American war, now joined Mr Fox, the opponent of that war, and the eloquent champion of the privileges of the people; and neither of these men, nor their friends, ever pretended that they had relinquished their former opinions. The purpose of the present coalition was therefore notorious; whilst the outrageous abuse with which they had formerly treated each other served only to afford a new example how completely ambition is capable of subduing every resentment, and all the ordinary passions of the human mind.

The party now called the Coalition had displayed the superiority of their numbers in the House of Commons in

the debates upon the treaty of peace in the middle of February. From that period it was considered as obvious that a new administration must be formed; and hence from that time public business remained at a stand, and the nation was kept in suspense. The period was critical, on account of the termination of the war, at which great bodies of troops and seamen were to be discharged, and many pecuniary arrears paid off. The different regiments of militia were also disembodied, and sailors and soldiers dismissed in a state of turbulence, natural to men accustomed to arms, and whose pay had not been regularly paid. These and other circumstances, joined with the unsettled state of the government, produced various disorderly proceedings at Portsmouth, Plymouth, and other places. In the mean time, a loan could not be negotiated by the ministry whilst they wanted the countenance of the House of Commons. During the whole month of March, however, they still lingered in their places, and a variety of negotiations were carried on by the court for the purpose of attempting to form a new ministry, without an unconditional transfer of the government of the kingdom to the Coalition. Confident of their own strength, however, this political combination were desirous of attaining power upon their own terms, and continued to display their superiority in the House of Commons, with a view to compel their own reception at court. On the 24th of March, on the motion of Mr T. W. Coke, seconded by Lord Surrey, an address was agreed to, requesting his majesty to take into consideration the distracted state of the empire after an exhausting war, and to comply with the wishes of the house, by forming an administration entitled to the confidence of his people. His majesty answered, that it was his earnest desire to do every thing in his power to comply with the wishes of his faithful Commons. The delay, however, continued; and all descriptions of men were involved in doubt, suspense, and anxiety. On the 31st of the same month, a new address, moved by Lord Surrey, was agreed to, urging in very earnest terms the formation of what was called an efficient and responsible administration, formed upon principles of strength and stability, and suited to the actual state of his majesty's affairs both at home and abroad. And at last, on the 2d of April, his majesty, yielding to what appeared as necessity, appointed an administration consisting of the leaders of the Coalition.

The Duke of Portland was promoted to be first lord of the treasury; Lord North and Mr Fox were appointed principal secretaries of state; Lord John Cavendish was made chancellor of the exchequer; Lord Keppel was placed at the head of the admiralty; Lord Stormont was created president of the council; and the Earl of Carlisle was advanced to be keeper of the privy seal. These constituted the cabinet; and the other offices of government were filled by the supporters and friends of ministers. The right honourable Charles Townshend was appointed treasurer of the navy, Mr Burke paymaster general of the forces, and Lord Viscount Townshend master-general of the ordnance. The seals were put in commission, at the head of which was Lord Loughborough. The right honourable Richard Fitzpatrick was appointed secretary at war; James Wallace, Esq. was made attorney-general; John Lee, Esq. became solicitor-general; the Earl of Northampton was appointed lord-lieutenant of Ireland; and, in Scotland, the honourable Henry Erskine was made lord-advocate, in the room of Mr Henry Dundas. But the new administration was no sooner installed, than an opposition was formed, which, in the House of Lords, was led by the Duke of Richmond and Lord Thurlow; and in the House of Commons by Mr Pitt, and Mr Jenkinson, afterwards created successively Lord Hawkesbury and Earl of Liverpool.

The Coalition administration, on entering into office,

Reign of George III. were under the necessity of instantly negotiating a loan of twelve millions, to supply the necessities of the state; and to provide for the interest of this loan various taxes were proposed by Lord John Cavendish, the chancellor of the exchequer. These were imposed on bills of exchange, receipts, probates of wills and legacies, bonds, and law proceedings, stage coaches, quack medicines, carriages, letters-patent, and other articles; whilst registers of births, marriages, and deaths, were also taxed. These taxes gave rise to debates which produced little interest. But the case was otherwise with regard to another subject in which Mr Pitt took the lead.

Towards the close of the American war, when want of success had begun to render it unpopular, it had been repeatedly urged, both in parliament and in various publications, that the ministerial majorities in favour of the measures pursued against the colonies would never have existed if the people of this country had been fairly represented in the House of Commons. By degrees this sentiment attracted attention; and to give countenance to parliamentary reform came to be regarded as a sure step towards the attainment of popular favour. Accordingly, Mr Pitt, then a young man, endeavoured to recommend himself to notice, by engaging eagerly in the pursuit of this object. He opened the subject in the House of Commons on the 7th of May, in an eloquent speech, in which, after declaring his admiration of the general fabric of the British constitution, and affirming that he wished not to alter but to restore its true spirit, which time and changes, accident and events, had enfeebled and diminished, he asserted that the state of parliamentary representation was partial and inadequate, and the progress of undue influence alarming and ominous; that the true spirit of liberty had decayed, and that the powers of control, in different branches of the government, were greatly debilitated; that wild speculations of reform were afloat without doors; but that the measures he was about to propose were equally moderate and necessary. He stated his plan of reform to be,—first, that measures ought to be taken to prevent bribery and expense at elections; secondly, that for the future, when the majority of voters of any borough should be convicted of notorious corruption, the borough should be disfranchised, and the minority of voters not so convicted should be entitled to vote for the county in which the borough might be situated; thirdly, that an addition ought to be made to the representation, to consist of knights of the shire, and of representatives of the metropolis. Mr Pitt was opposed with much earnestness by Lords North and Mulgrave, and also by Mr Pownall. He was supported, however, by Mr Fox and Mr Beaumont, and also by Mr Thomas Pitt, who offered, as a testimony of his sincerity, to make a voluntary sacrifice of his borough of Old Sarum. Mr Henry Dundas, who now attached himself to Mr Pitt, supported on this occasion the motion of his friend, and asserted, that to comply with the wishes of the people would be the happiest means of putting an end to their complaints. Mr Pitt's resolutions, however, were lost by a very large majority.

During the same session the new administration brought forward a bill, admitting in express terms the exclusive rights and absolute supremacy of the parliament and courts of Ireland in matters of legislation and judicature, and preventing any writs of error or appeal from the courts of that country to the courts of Great Britain. The bill passed with little opposition, and tended to gratify the people of Ireland, though, by increasing the line of separation between the countries, it evidently placed them in greater hazard of disunion.

During the present session Mr Dundas obtained leave to bring into parliament a bill for regulating the affairs of

India. The chief feature of his plan consisted in subjecting the presidencies of Madras and Bombay to a controlling jurisdiction, to be conferred on the government of Bengal, which he wished to vest in the person of a governor, entitled to act when he thought fit, in opposition to the opinion of his council. Another object of this bill was to secure to the native proprietors their estates in perpetuity, on payment of a fixed tribute, and to extend these provisions to the nabob of Arcot and the rajah of Tanjore. Mr Dundas contended that such a measure was rendered necessary in consequence of the improper conduct and tyranny of the servants of the East India Company, and especially of their principal servant Mr Hastings, whom he proposed to recall, and to send out to India Lord Cornwallis, as governor-general, in his stead. The scheme, however, proved abortive; but it led to other legislative efforts on the same subject.

Though Mr Pitt had been unsuccessful in his proposal to reform the representation of the people in parliament, he immediately brought forward a bill containing a project for an inferior species of reform, respecting the fees, gratuities, and perquisites in the different departments of the public offices. The object of this bill being economy, it passed through the House of Commons, but was rejected in the House of Lords.

Towards the close of the session, a petition from the American loyalists was, by his majesty's command, presented to the House of Commons by Lord John Cavendish. It stated that the petitioners, some of whom were persons of the first character, fortune, and consideration, having adhered to Great Britain during the contest with the colonies, had been attainted in North America as traitors, and their effects confiscated by the legislatures of the different states. Many of the petitioners were widows and orphans, who had lost husbands and fathers by their adherence to the British cause; whilst others were military and civil officers, clergy and other professional men, who had lost their means of subsistence in the same manner. They prayed the House of Commons to grant them such relief as might seem adequate to their situation; and, on the motion of the chancellor of the exchequer, an act was accordingly passed, appointing commissioners to inquire into the circumstances of such persons as were reduced to distress by the late dissensions in America.

On the 23d of June his majesty, by a message, requested the aid of parliament in making a separate establishment for the Prince of Wales. Sixty thousand pounds only were demanded for this purpose; and it was stated by Lord John Cavendish, that his majesty intended to allow the prince £50,000 a year out of the civil list, without requiring from the public any further assistance than the above sum of £60,000, which would be requisite to defray the extraordinary expense attending a new establishment. This last sum was the more readily granted, because rumours had gone abroad, which were alluded to by Mr Pitt in the House of Commons, that an intention had existed on the part of the administration, particularly of Mr Fox, to give the prince a very splendid establishment at the public expense, but that this proposal had not proved acceptable to his majesty. Mr Fox said, that he undoubtedly considered the proposed establishment as much too low; and that if it had remained with him to have advised an establishment, he would most assuredly have proposed a sum more adequate to the object in view. The person, however, most proper to decide in the business had been of an opinion very different, and it was his duty to submit.

Parliament was soon afterwards prorogued. The nation was now in a state of perfect tranquillity. Some anxiety,

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Reign of George III. however, existed in the minds of men with regard to the public welfare. The load of public debt which had been incurred seemed excessive; and though commerce began to flow into new and extensive channels, the returns of trade necessarily required some time to exhibit themselves in the form of a flourishing revenue. In the interval, therefore, between the period at which the ministerial expenditure for the support of the war ceased, and that at which the first profits of foreign trade were received, a considerable shortcoming took place in the public revenue, and individuals experienced many difficulties. These, however, gradually passed away; and two inventions were by degrees brought to perfection, which of themselves secured a profit to the public, almost equivalent to the burdens which it had incurred in consequence of the American war. These were the machine for spinning cotton, the invention of a man, originally of low station, Richard Arkwright; and the very valuable kinds of pottery contrived by Mr Wedgewood. The first of these, by producing at a cheap rate the most beautiful cotton fabrics, in a great measure put an end to the use of silk, and gave to the British manufacturers a kind of monopoly of many of the most useful articles of clothing; whilst the other not only drew to the nation immense sums from foreign countries, but, from the bulky nature of the commodity, employed an immense tonnage of shipping in its exportation.

In the mean time people had leisure to reflect upon the nature of the coalition of political parties which had recently taken place. The tendency of that measure, and the possible evils which might result from it, did not at once present themselves to the minds of men, because it was not known to the public at large that the sovereign had felt his own independence affected by the event. The general sentiment, however, was that of indignation against the political parties, who had so far forgotten all the principles which they had long and loudly professed, as to be capable of uniting with each other for the sake of power and emolument. It was universally said that no honesty was to be found among political men, and that no profession of patriotism ought henceforth to be trusted. Thus a severe wound was inflicted upon the public morals of the nation, by the want of consistency which its most conspicuous characters had exhibited; and the wound was only the deeper from the apparent strength of administration, which included in itself the men of greatest political influence in the kingdom, who were considered as likely to retain long the power which they now possessed.

In this state of affairs parliament assembled on the 11th of November. In the speech from the throne, the necessity of providing for the security of the revenue, and of attending to the situation of the East India Company, were stated to both houses, as apologies for calling them together after so short a recess. Some days passed in discussions relative to different parts of the revenue, when Mr Secretary Fox moved for leave to bring in two bills relative to the affairs of the East India Company. By the first of these, it was proposed to take from the East India Company the whole administration of their territorial and commercial affairs, and to vest it in seven directors, named in the bill, viz. Earl Fitzwilliam, the Right Honourable Frederick Montague, Lord Viscount Lewisham, the Honourable George Augustus North, Sir Gilbert Elliot, Sir Henry Fletcher, and Robert Gregory, Esq. These directors, or commissioners, were to hold their office during four years, and not to be removable by his majesty, without an address from either house of parliament; and they were to be aided by a board composed of nine assistant directors, who were to be removable by five of the principal directors, and were to have full authority over all the company's servants and affairs, civil as well as military. The

second bill, which accompanied the first in all its stages, was intended to regulate the administration of affairs in India. It forbade the exchange, acquisition, or invasion of any territory in India, by the general council, or any presidency there. It abolished all monopolies in India, and prohibited the acceptance of presents, making them recoverable by any person for his sole benefit. It secured an estate of inheritance to the native landholders, and provided against the alienation or increase of rents. It prohibited the molestation of princes subject to the Company, and restrained the Company's servants from collecting or farming their revenues, or having any pecuniary transactions with them. It prescribed a mode for adjusting the disputes between the nabob of Arcot and the rajah of Tanjore, and also between them and their British creditors. It disqualified the agents of the Company, or of any protected Indian prince, from sitting in the British House of Commons; and directed all offences against the act to be prosecuted in the courts of India or in the Court of King's Bench.

The East India Company's affairs had hitherto been governed, in terms of the charter of the Company, by a court of proprietors, and a court of directors elected by the proprietors. The rights of these courts, however, were to be absolutely taken away; and their whole powers, or the sovereignty of British India, was to be vested during four years certain in the hands of seven individuals, nominated by the present administration, through the medium of their parliamentary majority. It was undoubtedly a bold measure, openly to assault the privileges of such a body of men as the East India Company; but it was still more new and singular under the British constitution, in the form in which it had existed for more than a century, to vest a large portion of the executive power, including the command of armies, and an immense pecuniary patronage, in the hands of a few individuals, who were to hold their places for a fixed period, independently of the will of the crown. By taking possession in this manner of the patronage of Hindustan, the present administration would have found means to render themselves for a certain time avowedly independent of their sovereign, and they would not have failed to renew their own powers at the end of that period. It is to be observed, however, that the administration had in some degree been led by circumstances which previously occurred, and which did not originate with them, to adopt some decisive measures for reducing India under better management than that in which it had been placed by the East India Company; and of these it will not be improper here to take a short review.

The circumstance of a great and wealthy empire having been vanquished by a company of merchants, was a thing so new in the history of the world that it could not fail to be attended with a variety of inconveniences. The European nations have a near resemblance to each other in laws, manners, arts, and religion; and the mutual jealousy which for some centuries they had been accustomed to entertain of each other had prevented any of them from making great conquests. When any power, therefore, happened to acquire a portion of territory, this addition was never very great; and the laws of the neighbouring states being nearly alike, the conquered province scarcely experienced any misfortune from a change of masters. Hence the evils attending upon great conquests had ceased to be known among the nations of Europe; and the conquerors and the conquered being in all cases men of similar characters and talents, easily mingled with each other. The nobles of Alsace were as well received at the court of France as those belonging to the ancient dominions of the French crown; and the natives of the Netherlands regarded with

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much indifference their transition from the dominion of Spain to that of Austria and of France. But when the British made conquests in Hindustan, all the evils occurred which naturally attend the loss of national independence, and that most wretched of all states of human affairs, in which a race of strangers enjoys permanent dominion, whilst the natives of a country are subjected to hopeless depression and slavery. The British invaders of India undoubtedly possessed, or speedily acquired, the same rapacity with other conquerors; and as they were the servants of a company of merchants whose only principle of exertion was profit, it is probable that under them avarice and extortion assumed more vexatious forms, because accompanied with greater assiduity, and a more persevering temper, than were exhibited by the former conquerors of that country, who issued from the deserts of Tartary and Arabia. The people of Great Britain, accustomed at home to the mildest government, and to the most equitable administration of justice that the world ever experienced, heard with horror of the crimes, robberies, perfidies, and massacres which their countrymen had committed, and by which the national name and character had been rendered odious in the East. The British government, also, being no party to these crimes, wished to see them repressed, and very naturally supposed that the best remedy would consist in taking India under its own immediate management. Some public-spirited individuals, indeed, dreaded the accession of influence which the crown would thus necessarily acquire; but men of humanity were willing to encounter considerable hazard, for the sake of altering the unjustifiable mode of management which had prevailed in the East.

Early in 1781, two committees were appointed by the House of Commons, to inquire into the mal-administration of the East India Company's affairs both at home and abroad; and all parties in the house concurred in the appointment. The first, or select committee, conducted by some of the most distinguished members of opposition, was directed to inquire into the state of the administration of justice in the provinces of Bengal, Bahar, and Orix, and consider how the British possessions in the East Indies might be governed with most advantage to this country, and with the greatest happiness to the natives. The second, or secret committee, under the management of persons in the confidence of administration, was directed to inquire into the causes of the war in the Carnatic, and the condition of the British possessions in those parts.

On the 9th of April 1782, Mr Henry Dundas, lord-advocate of Scotland, and chairman of the secret committee, moved that the reports of that committee be referred to a committee of the whole house. Upon this occasion, Mr Dundas, in a long speech, enumerated the causes of the calamities of the East, particularly the departure of the Company's presidencies from the line of policy prescribed to them, namely, to avoid military operations with a view to conquest; the corrupt interference of their servants in the domestic and national quarrels of the country powers; their breaches of faith and disregard of treaties; their peculation and scandalous oppression of the natives; and the criminal relaxation on the part of the directors in the exercise of their controlling power over their servants, and their ready connivance at the grossest misconduct. Mr Dundas also brought forward a variety of other resolutions, which were adopted by the house; and criminated in strong terms Sir Thomas Rumbold, formerly governor of Madras, and Mr Hastings, then governor-general of Bengal. Among various charges, it was stated that Sir Thomas Rumbold had remitted to Europe, between the 8th of February 1778, the day of his arrival at Madras, and the beginning of August in the same year, the sum of L.41,000; and during the two subsequent years a fur-

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ther sum of L.119,000, amounting in all to L.160,000; although his salary did not exceed L.13,335 per annum, and he had no other fair means of acquiring wealth. He was charged with having abolished the committees instituted to superintend the payment of the revenue due by the zemindars, or natives holding lands under the Company; with having compelled them to travel many hundred miles to negotiate separately with himself the terms on which they were to hold their estates; with having suffered his private secretary to receive a bribe of no less than L.20,000; with having concealed other peculations of the Company's servants; with having given a lease of lands to the nabob of Arcot, in direct disobedience of the Company's orders; and with having violated the most solemn treaties entered into with the nizams of the Deccan. Charges so heavy could not be passed over, and leave was accordingly given to bring in a bill of pains and penalties against Sir Thomas Rumbold, and two of his associates, Peter Perry and John Whitehill, for breaches of public trust and high crimes and misdemeanours; and at the same time an act was passed restraining those persons from leaving the kingdom, and obliging a discovery of their property, and preventing its alienation.

In other resolutions brought forward on the 15th of April, Mr Dundas stated a variety of accusations against Mr Hastings and Mr Hornsby; and a resolution was adopted, declaring it to be the duty of the directors of the East India Company to recall the governor-general, and Mr Hornsby the president, from their respective offices. Accordingly, the court of directors issued orders for this purpose; but these were appealed from to a court of proprietors, who, on the 31st of October 1782, prohibited the court of directors from complying with the resolution of the House of Commons. The result was, that Mr Hastings retained his office, and Mr Dundas, in the following session of parliament, brought forward the bill which we have already mentioned, but which was not passed into a law.

At the same time that Mr Dundas, as chairman of the secret committee, brought forward the resolutions already mentioned, the select committee presented their report; and on the 18th of April, General Smith, their chairman, proposed various resolutions, in some of which Mr Hastings was criminated along with Sir Elijah Impey, chief-justice of the supreme court of Bengal. By means of investigations carried on by this committee, the leading members of opposition, particularly Mr Fox and Mr Burke, qualified themselves for directing at a future period the attention of the legislature and of the public to the state of Indian affairs. Mr Fox made use of his knowledge to bring forward the two remarkable bills already mentioned; and to justify so strong a measure, it was alleged that, by the mismanagement of the courts of directors and proprietors, the affairs of the Company had been brought into such a state of extreme embarrassment as rendered it absolutely necessary to vest the administration in other hands.

These abuses were arranged under three heads, as they affected, first, the independent powers of India; secondly, the states in alliance with us; and, thirdly, our own territorial possessions. Under the *first* head were classed the extravagant projects and expensive wars entered into by the Company to extend their dominions; their violations of treaty; the sale of their assistance in support of the ambition, rapacity, and cruelty of others; and the betraying in turn almost every prince, without exception, with whom they had formed any connection in India. The *second* class of abuses comprehended the corrupt and ruinous interference of the Company in the internal government of the princes dependent on them; the unjust

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In these views Mr Fox was powerfully supported by the splendid eloquence of Mr Burke. But Mr Pitt contended, that although India undoubtedly wanted reform, the alteration to be adopted ought to be constitutional, and not such as in its principle endangered the safety of every chartered incorporation in the kingdom. The company's charter was not the result of the mad prodigality of a Plantagenet, a Tudor, or a Stuart, but a fair purchase deliberately made from parliament, which could not be violated without a gross disregard to public faith. By vesting the whole patronage of India in commissioners nominally appointed by parliament, but actually selected by administration, the influence of the crown would be augmented to a degree which would enable it, like an irresistible torrent, utterly to overpower and sweep away the remaining liberties of the country. On the other hand,

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The principal supporters of the bills were the two secretaries of state, Mr Burke, Mr Sheridan, Mr Erskine, Mr Lee, Mr Adam, Sir Grey Coupar, Mr Anstruther, Mr Courteney, Mr Rigby, Lord Maitland, and Sir Henry Fletcher; and they were opposed by Mr William Pitt, Mr Thomas Pitt, Mr Jenkinson, Mr Powis, Mr Dundas, Mr Macdonald, Sir James Lowther, Mr Duncombe, Mr Martin, the Marquis of Graham, Mr Arden, Mr William Grenville, Mr Beaufoy, Mr Wilberforce, Lord Mulgrave, and Mr Wilkes. The first bill, however, was carried by a considerable majority; and on the 9th of December it was presented to the House of Lords by Mr Fox, attended by a great number of members. On the first reading, Earl Temple, Lord Thurlow, and the Duke of Richmond, reported the measure in the most unqualified terms, but without calling for a vote of the house; and Lord Thurlow, at the same time, pronounced a panegyric upon the character and services of Mr Hastings.

Meanwhile an alarm seems to have been excited in the mind of the sovereign. He had reluctantly given way to the strength of the coalition, and conferred upon its leaders the first offices of the state; and he now heard it alleged, with some plausibility, that this combination of ambitious men, not satisfied with the ordinary influence attending their situation, were about to fortify themselves in the possession of power in such a way as gradually to enable them to become independent both of him and his people. The moment seemed therefore to have arrived when temporizing measures could no longer be pursued, and a stand must be made for the support of the royal prerogative. Accordingly, on the 11th of December his majesty had a conference with Earl Temple, in which he confessed himself completely convinced of the correctness of the views entertained by opposition; and although it was now somewhat late to oppose a measure which had been brought forward by the ministers of the crown, and carried through the House of Commons under the apparent sanction of the royal authority, a resolution was nevertheless adopted to endeavour to prevent its further progress by means of the House of Lords. A card was accordingly circulated, understood to be sent by Earl Temple, in consequence of written authority from his majesty, in which it was stated, that his majesty allowed Earl Temple to say, that whoever voted for the India bill was not only not his friend, but would be considered by him as his enemy; and that if these words were not strong enough, Earl Temple might use whatever words he should deem stronger or more to the purpose. The consequence of this interposition was, that, on the 15th of December, upon a question of adjournment in the House of Lords, the ministers were left in a minority of eight. On the same day Mr Baker brought forward a motion in the House of Commons, to declare, that, to report any opinion of his majesty, upon proceedings depending in parliament, with a view to influence the votes of the members, is a high crime and misdemeanour, and a breach of the fundamental privileges of parliament. This motion was seconded by Lord Maitland, and supported by references to the journals, and by the principle, that

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advice ought only to be given to the king by his ministers, who are responsible for all the measures of government. Mr Pitt, however, opposed it, as proceeding upon unauthenticated rumours, and asserted that the precedents al- luded to in the journals were not applicable to the present case. But the motion was nevertheless carried by a large majority; and as it was feared that a dissolution would instantly take place, the house resolved that they would consider any person as an enemy to his country who should advise his majesty to interrupt their discharging the important duty of providing a remedy for the abuses which prevailed in the East Indies, and that they would resolve themselves into a committee on the state of the nation on the 22d December. But on the 17th Mr Fox's India bill was rejected in the House of Lords; and at twelve o'clock on the night of the 18th a message was delivered to the secretaries of state, requiring them to transmit to his majesty the seals of their offices, by the under secretaries, as a personal interview would be disagreeable to the king. Early next morning, letters of dismission, signed by Earl Temple, were sent to the other members of the cabinet, and a general resignation of offices followed.

A new administration was immediately formed, in which Mr Pitt was appointed first lord of the treasury and chancellor of the exchequer; the Marquis of Carmarthen and Mr Townshend, who had been created Lord Sidney, were made secretaries of state; Lord Thurlow became lord high chancellor; the privy-seal was transferred to the Duke of Rutland; Earl Gower became president of the council; the Duke of Richmond was made master of the ordnance, and Lord Howe first lord of the admiralty; Mr Grenville and Lord Mulgrave were appointed joint paymasters of the forces, and Mr Henry Dundas treasurer of the navy; the office of lord advocate of Scotland, which this gentleman had formerly held, being transferred from the Honourable Henry Erskine to Mr Hay Campbell.

A spectacle was now about to be exhibited which had long been unknown in Britain,—that of an administration appointed by the crown, in direct opposition to the House of Commons. This, however, was no longer the House of Commons which had subdued the royal prerogative, and contended with success against our ablest and most ambitious monarchs. The late coalition had produced throughout the nation a general distrust of the character of those who formed the majority of its members; and it was soon found that a representative body possesses little power or influence, and may be safely disregarded, when it ceases to be the organ of the public sentiments. It was expected that an immediate dissolution of parliament would take place; but the change of the highest officers of the crown having been hastily made, it is probable that the new ministry dreaded entering instantly upon the business of an election against the powerful parties coalesced in opposition to them. The majority of the House of Commons also dreaded a dissolution, and, on Monday the 22d of December, they voted an address to the king, stating the present inconveniences which would attend a prorogation or dissolution of parliament. His majesty returned an answer on the 24th, acquiescing, in general terms, in the sentiments contained in the address, and assuring the house that, after a short adjournment, their meeting would not be interrupted by any prorogation or dissolution.

When the house met on the 12th of January, Mr Fox attempted to introduce, previous to any other business, the discussion of certain resolutions which had been prepared by the opposition; whilst the new ministers endeavoured, by means of a stratagem, to be heard first, Mr Pitt declaring that he had a message to deliver from the king. But after some tumult, Mr Fox being allowed to proceed, called upon Mr Pitt to give the house an assu-

rance that no dissolution would take place; and the latter having declined to comply with this requisition, Mr Fox moved that the house should resolve itself into a committee on the state of the nation, and the motion was carried by a large majority. It was then resolved, that to issue public money after a prorogation or dissolution of parliament, unless an act had previously passed, appropriating the supplies to specific services, would be a high crime and misdemeanour; that, in the present state of his majesty's dominions, it was necessary to have an administration possessing the confidence of the house and the public; that the recent appointments did not enjoy the confidence of the house; and that the second reading of the mutiny bill should be deferred till the 23d of February. Warm debates ensued upon these resolutions. The Coalition was branded as a corrupt confederacy of two desperate factions to seize upon the government of the country; and the India bill was represented as an experiment made by the late secretary of state, with a view to raise himself to a degree of power superior to that of the sovereign. On the other hand, the new administration was described as a coalition, not indeed of parties, but of the shreds and remnants, of the dregs and outcasts, of parties; as a body collected for the purpose of fighting the battles of secret and unconstitutional influence, of trampling on the power and dignity of the House of Commons, of establishing a government of cabal, intrigue, and favouritism, and of destroying the very principles of laudable ambition and honourable service in the state.

On the 14th of January Mr Pitt obtained leave to bring in a bill for the better government and management of the affairs of the East India Company. By this bill, commissioners were appointed by his majesty, authorized to superintend and control all operations of the courts of directors and proprietors of the East India Company, relative to the civil and military government or revenues of the territories and possessions of the Company. This board of control was to have access to all papers belonging to the Company; and the court of directors was on no pretence to send out orders to India, without the previous approbation of the board, which was also authorized to alter and amend the orders of the directors. His majesty was authorized to name the commanders-in-chief in India, and to remove any governor, general, or member of the councils, of any British settlement in India; and all nominations by the court of directors to these offices were declared to be subject to the approbation of his majesty; nor was the court of proprietors allowed, for the future, to revoke any proceeding of the court of directors which had been approved of by his majesty. It was objected to this bill, that it disfranchised the East India Company, or violated their charter, no less than Mr Fox's bill had done; and although a meeting of the court of proprietors had passed a vote in favour of the regulations contained in it, yet at the second reading, on the 22d of January, it was negatived by a small majority.

The discussion of this bill did not prevent the House of Commons from endeavouring to shake the determination of the court, and to intimidate the new administration. A resolution was moved and carried, declaring in pointed terms the disapprobation of the house, of the appointment and continuance in office of the present ministers, which they considered as unconstitutional. Mr Pitt was also called upon to explain upon what principle he ventured to remain in office after the House of Commons had declared him unworthy of their confidence. He answered, that though novel and extraordinary, his conduct was by no means unconstitutional; that the immediate appointment or removal of a minister did not rest with the house; that he neither could or ought to remain long in such a

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In the meanwhile, a number of independent members of the House of Commons attempted to heal the present breach by proposing a new coalition of parties, and the formation of an administration upon a still broader basis than formerly. On the 26th of January, about seventy members of the House of Commons met at the St Albans tavern, and signed an address, to be presented, by a committee of their body, to the Duke of Portland and Mr Pitt, requesting them to communicate with each other on the arduous state of public affairs, and expressing a hope that, by a liberal intercourse, every impediment to a cordial co-operation of men of character, acting on the same public principles, might be removed. In answer to this address, both parties expressed themselves desirous to comply with the wishes of so respectable a meeting; but the Duke of Portland declined any interview with Mr Pitt, for the purpose of union, while that gentleman continued prime minister in defiance of the resolutions of the House of Commons; and, on the other hand, Mr Pitt refused to resign as a preliminary to negotiation. To co-operate with the St Albans meeting, one of its members moved and carried unanimously a resolution, that the present critical state of public affairs required an efficient, extended, and united administration, entitled to the confidence of the people; and it was also resolved that the continuance of the present ministers in office was an obstacle to forming an efficient, extended, and united administration; resolutions which were ordered to be laid before his majesty. The meeting at the St Albans tavern next declared that an administration formed on the total exclusion of the members of the last or present administration would be inadequate to the exigencies of public affairs. Mr Fox expressed his wishes for a union, but insisted on the resignation of the chancellor of the exchequer in compliance with the resolutions of the House of Commons, as an indispensable preliminary. Mr Pitt, on the contrary, adhered to office, and declared that the house might address the crown for his dismissal; but till the king should think proper to remove him from his situation, he held it to be neither illegal nor unconstitutional to retain it, and would not recede from his former determination. He at the same time suggested, that there might be persons on the opposite side of the house with whom he could not act. Lord North, understanding himself to be alluded to, declared his readiness to relinquish his pretensions to an official situation, if these should be deemed any obstacle to a union; and this self-denying declaration was received with great applause. Mr Marsham, Mr Powis, and other members of the St Albans association, then called upon Mr Pitt to yield to the pressing exigencies of his country, but in vain. These gentlemen, however, still continued their efforts; and, to remove the difficulty arising from Mr Pitt's refusal to resign, or to save the honour of the house upon that point, they procured the royal interference to the extent of requesting that a negotiation should be set on foot between the Duke of

Portland and Mr Pitt. A message was accordingly sent by Mr Pitt, acquainting the duke that he was commanded to signify to him his majesty's earnest desire that his grace should have a personal conference with Mr Pitt for the purpose of forming a new administration, on a wide basis, and on fair and equal terms. The duke requested an explanation of the message with regard to the words *equal terms*; but Mr Pitt declined any preliminary discussion. The Duke of Portland likewise proposed that he should be permitted to understand that the message implied a virtual resignation by Mr Pitt, or that he himself should receive his majesty's commands personally relative to the conference. But both of these propositions were refused, and here terminated the efforts of the St Albans association.

On the 18th of February the chancellor of the exchequer, in his place in the House of Commons, being required to say, previous to the consideration of the question of supply for the ordnance department, whether any communication was to be expected relative to the resolutions of the house which had recently been laid before the king, replied, that his majesty, after considering all the circumstances of the country, had not thought fit to dismiss his ministers, and that his ministers had not resigned. This produced a warm debate, in which it was observed by Mr Fox, that it was the first instance since the revolution of a direct denial on the part of the crown to comply with the wishes of the House of Commons; and he threw out a hint that it might be necessary for the house to protect its own authority by refusing to vote the supplies. But to allow his majesty's ministers time to consider well their situation, he proposed to defer the report of the ordnance estimate for two days. The refusal of the supplies was treated by the friends of the new administration as a threat which the utmost madness of faction would not seriously attempt to execute, and which could never be justified by his majesty's refusal to dismiss ministers who had been condemned without a trial. On a division, however, there appeared a majority of twelve for postponing the supplies. On the 20th of February a new address to the throne for the removal of the ministers was carried by a majority of twenty-one; and on the 27th his majesty's answer was reported by the speaker, in which it was stated that no charge or complaint had been suggested against the ministers, nor was any one of them specifically objected to; and that, on the other hand, numbers of his subjects had expressed his majesty the utmost satisfaction with the change of his council. This answer was abundantly artful, as it tended to alienate the people from the House of Commons, and, at the same time, to perplex the Coalition, who could not accuse the prime minister of any political crime, as he was a young man, who had never enjoyed the chief direction of any important affair. A second address to the throne, however, was moved in the House of Commons on the 1st of March, and agreed to by a majority of twelve, remonstrating against the answer to the former address. His majesty replied in civil terms; but persevering in his resolution to retain his ministers, the opposition resolved to make a last effort to overcome the royal determination. Mr Fox declared that he would not propose an address to the throne, because he wished for no answer, but a humble representation, to which it was not customary to make any reply. And this representation consisted of a long remonstrance against the alleged unconstitutional appointment of an administration in opposition to the wishes of the House of Commons; and concluded by stating, that the house had done its duty in pointing out the evil, and that the blame and responsibility must henceforth lie wholly upon those who had presumed to advise his majesty to act in contradiction to the

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uniform maxims which had hitherto governed his own conduct, as well as that of every other prince of his illustrious house. This representation was carried by a majority of only one vote, which the Coalition appear to have considered as a defeat; for they finally yielded to their destiny, and suffered the minty bill, which had been their last security against a premature dissolution, to pass in the usual terms.

Soon after the partial cessation of this struggle, parliament was dissolved; and in the elections which ensued, the new administration were extremely successful. Upwards of a hundred and sixty members of the former House of Commons lost their seats; and of these, nearly the whole were the friends of the previous administration. Thus the defeat of a powerful combination was completely accomplished, and its leaders were rendered of little importance in the legislature of the empire; and thus terminated the strength of the celebrated Coalition, the fate and effects of which ought never to be forgotten. That unfortunate measure may be said to have ruined the political fortunes of Mr Fox, undoubtedly one of the most accomplished statesmen whom Britain ever produced. From that period he was generally regarded as unfit to be intrusted with power; his eloquence ceased to persuade, and his counsels, even when full of wisdom, were regarded with distrust, because his coalition with Lord North constantly rose up against him, and suggested suspicions of his integrity, or at least of his wisdom. This coalition also had a tendency to diminish the attachment of the nation to the House of Commons, and its confidence in that branch of the legislature which, in fact, might be nothing more than a combination of factious men aiming at personal aggrandizement, and in certain circumstances rendering it necessary for the people to arrange themselves behind the throne, in order to obtain protection against one of the worst and most oppressive of all governments, that of a corrupt aristocracy.

On the 18th of May the new parliament assembled; and in the speech from the throne his majesty assured both houses of his satisfaction in meeting them, after recurring, in so important a moment, to the sense of his people, and of his reliance on their being animated by the same sentiments of loyalty and attachment to the constitution which had been so fully manifested throughout the kingdom. He directed their attention to the affairs of the East India Company, but warned them against adopting any measures which might affect the constitution; and concluded with expressing his inclination to maintain, in their just balance, the rights and privileges of every branch in the legislature.

The affairs of the East India Company were speedily brought before parliament. On the 24th of June a bill was introduced by the chancellor of the exchequer to allow the Company to divide four per cent. on their capital for the half year concluding at midsummer 1784. The necessity of the case was urged in justification of this bill for supporting the credit of the Company; and it was alleged, that notwithstanding their present distresses, which were admitted to be great, there existed a sufficient probability that their affairs upon the whole might warrant such a dividend. The bill passed through both houses, and received the royal assent. On the 2d of July, Mr Pitt brought forward another bill, which had for its object to allow the Company a respite of duties due to the exchequer, to enable them to accept of bills beyond the amount prescribed by former statutes, and to establish the regularity of their future dividends. This act gave rise to various debates, particularly in consequence of a question put by Mr Philip Francis, how far the honour of parliament would be pledged by it to enable the East India Company to make

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payment of the bills accepted by them, in case the funds of the Company should prove deficient. But it nevertheless passed into a law; and Mr Pitt, still further to support the East India Company, brought forward a bill to diminish the duty upon tea, for the sake of preventing smuggling, and in lieu thereof to substitute a commutation tax upon windows. The amount of the revenue raised from tea was between L.700,000 and L.800,000; and the object of the new act was to proportion it in such a way as to raise upon that article in future no more than L.160,000, which it was supposed would enable the Company to sell thirteen millions of pounds of tea, instead of five millions and a half.

But these, which all passed and received the royal assent, were subordinate to the bill for regulating the general management of the affairs of the Company, which, though framed upon the same model with that proposed by Mr Pitt in the last parliament, yet differed from it in several particulars. The powers of the board of control were enlarged; in cases of urgency and secrecy, it was authorized to transmit its own orders to India without these being subject to the revision of the court of directors; in the governor-general and council of Bengal was vested an absolute power over the other presidencies in transactions with the country powers, and in all applications of the revenues and forces in time of war; the receiving of presents was declared to be extortion and disobedience of orders; the Company's servants were required, on their return to England, to lodge in the exchequer a statement upon oath of their whole property; and for the effectual punishment of crimes committed in the East Indies, a new court of justice was instituted.

Mr Francis opposed in strong terms the general principle of this bill, as tending to create an incongruous power, nominal on the part of the directors, real on the part of administration; and Mr Fox affirmed that the proposed board of control violated the privileges of the India Company no less than the enactment of his bills had done, whilst it increased in a greater degree the dangerous influence of the crown. He treated with great contempt the new court of judicature, which he said might fairly be called a bed of justice, as justice would sleep upon it, and thereby exhibit the calamities of India, by removing all fear of punishment. When the bill came to be discussed in the committee, Mr Pitt acted in a manner which afterwards on many occasions distinguished his mode of transacting the national business. Instead of coming forward, like the leader of a party, with a measure complete in all its parts, and prepared to receive the firm support of his adherents, he not only of himself proposed some essential alterations, but adopted those suggested by others, whether friends or antagonists. The consequence was, that, in the committee, it underwent important modifications. The power of issuing orders, in the first instance, was limited to the case of the court of directors neglecting to transmit dispatches to the board, after fourteen days' notice, upon any subject which the board might think it necessary to take up. The directors were also empowered to elect a secret committee of three members, to communicate with the board concerning such orders as the board might of its own authority transmit to India. The appointment of the commander in chief of the army was withdrawn from his majesty, and left with the Company, together with the negative upon nominations in general. Mr Pitt himself also brought forward some amendments respecting the constitution of the new tribunal. Authority was now given to any person or persons to move the Court of King's Bench for an information. The court was also authorized to issue commissions to the courts in India, for the purpose of taking depositions; and the direc-

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Early in July the chancellor of the exchequer informed the House of Commons that Sir Elijah Impey, chief judge of the supreme court of justice of Bengal, had arrived in England, in consequence of being recalled by his majesty, pursuant to an address of the house. The acute sensibility or powerful imagination of Mr. Burke having induced him to interest himself greatly in the sufferings of the natives of India under the British government, he now called on the ministry to enforce the resolutions of the house respecting Sir Elijah Impey, by bringing him to trial; and he repeatedly endeavoured to introduce as the subject of deliberation the reports of the committees of the former parliament respecting Indian affairs; but he was either defeated, with little reply, by a motion for the order of the day, or overpowered and silenced by the loud and continual clamour of the house.

During the present session it was found necessary to have recourse to a loan of six millions, to settle the remaining expenses of the American war. The naval establishment was at the same time fixed on a higher scale than in former years of peace. The number of seamen and marines voted was twenty-six thousand; but the military force was not large, as it did not exceed seventeen thousand five hundred men for guards and garrisons. Several new taxes were imposed upon linen and cotton manufactures, hats, paper, candles, bricks, postage of letters, horses, hackney-coaches, persons dealing in excisable commodities, and persons engaging in the amusement of shooting game or hunting, none of which met with almost any opposition.

The session closed with a motion, brought forward by Mr Dundas, for the restoration of the estates forfeited in Scotland in the rebellion of 1745, to the descendants or other heirs of the rebels. As this measure had for its object the relief of individuals whose unequivocal attachment to his present majesty and his family could not be supposed to be tainted or affected by the crimes of their ancestors, it met with the approbation of the Commons; but in the House of Lords it was opposed by the Lord Chancellor Thurlow, on the ground both of its impolicy and its partiality; impolicy, as rendering nugatory the settled maxim of the British constitution, that treason was a crime of so deep a dye that nothing was adequate to its punishment but the total eradication of the person, the name, and the family, out of the society which he had attempted to injure; and partiality, because the estates forfeited in 1715, and which were forfeited upon the same grounds and principles as those in 1745, were passed over in silence, whilst a person who had been forfeited in 1690 was even included in the provision. The bill, however, passed the Lords, and received the royal assent.

At this time the British nation enjoyed profound peace; and the public attention being no longer excited by national efforts, or by the enterprises of any political faction, was easily directed to objects of less importance, among which may be mentioned the discoveries in aerostation, which had hitherto proved of more curiosity than utility.

Parliament assembled again on the 25th of January 1784. In the speech from the throne, the object particularly recommended to the attention of both houses was the final adjustment of the commercial intercourse between Great Britain and Ireland. The first business taken up related to the choice of two members of parliament for Westminster at the late general election. Lord Hood, Mr Fox, and Sir Cecil Wray, had offered themselves

as candidates. Lord Hood easily carried his election; but between the other candidates the contest was carried on with unexampled obstinacy. The engaging manners of Mr Fox, who had for some time represented the city of Westminster in parliament, enabled him, however, notwithstanding the general unpopularity of the Coalition, to engage with success in the contest. After the election had continued upwards of six weeks, it was concluded on the 17th May 1784, leaving a considerable majority in favour of Mr Fox. At this time, being the very day previous to the return of the writ for the election, the high bailiff, at the request of Sir Cecil Wray, granted a scrutiny into the votes which he had taken. This was protested against by Mr Fox and several of the electors; and immediately on the meeting of parliament, the conduct of the high bailiff was vehemently attacked by opposition, and no less vigorously defended by administration. On a motion of Lord Mulgrave, however, it was resolved that the high bailiff of Westminster should proceed in the scrutiny with all practicable dispatch. In the beginning of February the business was resumed in the House of Commons. The scrutiny had continued eight months, and only two parishes out of seven had been scrutinized; so that it was admitted that probably more than two years longer would be necessary to finish the scrutiny. On the 8th of February, however, Mr Welbore Ellis moved that a return of the election be immediately made by the high bailiff of Westminster; and, after a variety of debates, it was at length carried, and Lord Hood and Mr Fox were returned as members for Westminster.

On the 18th of February, the attention of the House of Commons was called to the payment of the debts of the nabob of Arcot. The statute which Mr Pitt had got passed during the preceding summer authorized in general terms the court of directors to establish, in concert with the nabob, funds for the payment of such of his debts as should appear to be justly due. The court of directors accordingly ordered the council at Madras to investigate these debts; but the board of control, with some trifling limitation, ordered the whole debts to be paid out of the revenues of the Carnatic. Mr Dundas undertook the defence of the board of control, and treated with ridicule a declaration made by Mr Francis, that rumours were abroad of a collusion between the board of control and the creditors of 1777. He justified the whole of the nabob of Arcot's debts. One set of debts incurred in 1767 consisted of money borrowed by the nabob at the rate of from thirty to thirty-six per cent. interest, to pay off a sum due by the nabob to the Company, which was at that time in the utmost distress, and the interest had afterwards been reduced to ten per cent. The second branch of the nabob's debts had arisen from sums borrowed to pay off his own cavalry, which the Company had ordered him to reduce, but which he was unable to dismiss from want of money to pay their arrears. He had borrowed this money, and the Company had engaged its credit for the loan. A third class of debts, incurred or consolidated in 1777, were acknowledged by the nabob to be valid, and were only approved of by the board of control, subject to his objections, or to objections by the Company or the rest of the creditors.

Mr Burke stated a variety of objections to the nabob's debts. It appeared that the nabob had contracted a debt with the Company's servants to the amount of £588,000 sterling, which, in the year 1767, was settled at an interest of ten per cent. In the year 1777 a second debt of the nabob of Arcot, amounting to £2,400,000, was settled at twelve per cent. interest; and to this was added another debt, called the cavalry debt, of £160,000, at the same interest. The whole of these four capitals, amounting to

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£4,440,000, produced at their several rates annuities amounting to £625,000 a year, more than half of which stood chargeable on the public revenues of the Carnatic. These annuities, equal to the revenues of a kingdom, were possessed by a small number of individuals of no consequence, situation, or profession. Mr Burke admitted that the loan of 1767 was the fairest, as it could be convicted of nothing worse than the most enormous usury. The interest at thirty-six per cent. was first paid, then twenty-five, then twenty, and, lastly, the interest was reduced to ten per cent.; but all along the interest had been added to the principal, so that of £888,000 Mr Burke doubted whether the nabob ever saw £100,000 in real money. With regard to the cavalry debt, Mr Burke stated, that instead of ready money, the English money jobbers engaged to pay the nabob's cavalry in bills payable in four months, for which they were to receive immediately at least one per cent. per month, but probably two, such being the rate generally paid by the nabob, and that a territorial revenue was assigned to them for that purpose; but it was upwards of two years before the arrears of the cavalry were discharged; and these jobbers being all this time in receipt of the assigned revenue, they paid off the nabob's troops with his own money. As to the debt of 1777, Mr Burke observed, that in different accounts the principal sum rose from £1,300,000 to £3,400,000, and the creditors had never appeared the same in any two lists. In the year 1781 they were satisfied to have twenty-five per cent. at once struck off from the capital, yet they were now to obtain payment of the whole. It appeared, therefore, that the nabob and his creditors were not adversaries, but collusive parties; and that when the nabob gave an acknowledgment of debt to a European, he received no money, and only endeavoured to support his own influence by receiving the servants of the Company into his pay. The motion for an inquiry into the conduct of the board of control on this occasion was however negatived on a division.

When Mr Pitt came into office, he had the singular good fortune of being highly popular with the nation, while he was selected to support the royal prerogative and authority against the majority of the House of Commons, then possessed by the Coalition. Accordingly, it became one of the features of his conduct to attempt, if possible, to reconcile the services expected from him by the crown with the apparent pursuit of whatever measure happened for the time to be an object of popular favour. The attempt to procure a reform in the representation of the people in the House of Commons was one of these objects. He had formerly engaged in it while acting in opposition; and now, after he had become the first minister of the crown, he still undertook to stand forward as its advocate. Every writer of history must be sensible of the defective nature of the details which he is able to give as to the causes which produce or regulate the most important events, and which often lie hidden in a region far beyond the limits of his penetration or research. In what way, or by what means, Mr Pitt contrived to retain the confidence of his master, whilst he at the same time stood forward as the champion of a reform which every body knew to be hateful at court, it is impossible to conjecture. Certain it is, however, that after he had attained to the chief place in the present administration, he still continued to correspond with the leading advocates of parliamentary reform, whose meetings he had been accustomed to attend. In a circular letter to Mr Wyvil, president of a committee of Yorkshire gentlemen, it was stated that Mr Pitt had given authority to declare, that he would bring forward the subject of a parliamentary reform as early as possible in the session; that he would support his intended proposi-

tions to the utmost of his strength; and that he would exert his whole power and credit, as a man and as a minister, honestly and boldly, to carry such a system as should place the constitution on a footing of permanent security. And at the commencement of the session, when the subject was alluded to, Mr Pitt took the opportunity to declare, that on this business he laboured incessantly; that it was that which of all others was nearest his heart, but at so early a period of the session it was impossible to state his plan specifically; that much remained to be done, but his ideas were not matured; that a reform in parliament comprehended a great variety of considerations, relating to the essentials of the constitution; that in this path he was determined to tread, but he knew with what tenderness and circumspection it became him to proceed; and he requested the house to come to the subject uninfluenced by any of those schemes and hypotheses which had hitherto been suggested.

It was not till the 18th of April, however, that he called the attention of the house to this important subject. He declared himself aware of the difficulties he must expect to encounter in proposing a plan of reform; but he entertained more sanguine hopes of success than formerly, because there never was a moment when the minds of men were more enlightened on this interesting topic, or more prepared for its discussion. He was particularly anxious to remove the objection of innovation. Anciently great fluctuations had taken place in the franchise. The number of members had varied, and even the representation of the counties was not uniform. As one borough decayed and another flourished, the first was abolished and the second enfranchised. This arose from a maxim the application of which was intrusted to the crown, that the principal places, and not the decayed boroughs, should be called upon to exercise the right of election. He was no advocate for a revival of this discretionary power, but the maxim upon which it was founded ought now to be carried into effect. The outline of his plan was this: To transfer the right of choosing representatives from thirty-six of such boroughs as had already fallen, or were falling into decay, to the counties, and such chief towns and cities as were still unrepresented; to provide a fund for the purpose of giving to the owners and holders of such boroughs disfranchised, an appropriated compensation for their property; and to make the receiving of this compensation a voluntary act of the proprietor, and if not received when tendered, to place it out at compound interest, until it became an irresistible bait to such proprietors. He also proposed to extend the right of voting for knights of the shire, to copyholders as well as freeholders. Besides the thirty-six boroughs already mentioned, he proposed to purchase the franchise of other boroughs, and to transfer the right of returning members to unrepresented large towns, which should petition parliament for the privilege. Thus a hundred members would be given to the popular interest of the kingdom, and the right of election extended to a hundred thousand additional persons. Mr Fox disapproved of purchasing from a majority of the electors of a borough the property of the whole, and of holding out pecuniary temptations to an Englishman to relinquish his franchise, though he declared himself a friend to the general principle of a more equitable representation. Mr Wilberforce supported Mr Pitt's proposal, because, by putting an end to the representation of the decayed boroughs, dangerous aristocratical coalitions would in future be prevented. But it was warmly opposed by Mr Powis, who alleged that the people of England had not called for reform, and that the business in which Mr Pitt had unfortunately engaged himself was a volunteer crusade, or a piece of political knight-errantry. Lord North likewise

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opposed all change, alleging that the people were actually contented, happy, and in full possession of their liberties. And, finally, leave to bring in the bill was refused by a large majority; which was probably the very result Mr Pitt not only anticipated, but also desired.

As the sole object for which the English monarchs anciently assembled their parliaments was to obtain money from their subjects, so the adjustment of the public expenses, and levying adequate supplies, always continue to occupy a large portion of the time of every session of parliament. The prodigious expenditure which had taken place during the war still required additional taxes. For this purpose new demands were made. Hawkers and pedlars, and attornies, were taxed; and the duties on male servants and post horses were enlarged. An impost laid upon retail shops, however, encountered persevering opposition in parliament, as well as much unpopularity in the nation. It was represented as unfair, because it fell upon a small number of industrious persons; and it was observed, that, unlike other taxes, those who imposed it were in no hazard themselves of paying any part of it. But of all the taxes proposed by the minister, none encountered such sarcastic animadversion as that upon maid-servants; and Mr Pitt, who was understood to be something of a misogynist, was accused by Mr Sheridan of holding out a bounty to celibacy. But the subject which excited most attention was that of the ordnance. As early as the year 1782, the Duke of Richmond had planned an expensive system of fortifications, for protecting the different dock-yards of the kingdom: the idea having originated in the alarm occasioned by the appearance of the combined fleet in the Channel. The works had for some time been carried on, and the sum of £50,000 annually voted, without much attention being given to the subject. But during this session it was moved that an account should be laid before the house, of the expenses already incurred on fortifications, at Plymouth, Portsmouth, Gosport, Chatham, Dover, and Sheerness, with a report of the probable expense of completing the fortifications of Portsmouth and Plymouth; and afterwards the annual grant was opposed. Mr Pitt defended the Duke of Richmond, but agreed to a proposal which had been made to take the opinion of a council of officers; and this put an end to the debate.

A bill for better regulating the office of the treasurer of the navy passed without any sort of opposition; and another for the better examining of the public accounts met with little opposition; but a third brought in by Mr Pitt, for the general reform of public offices, encountered strenuous opposition. Mr Sheridan contended that it was unnecessary, as the treasury possessed ample power to make the necessary reforms; and Mr Burke contrasted, in strong terms, the trifling economy here proposed, with the prodigality of the ministers in their proceedings respecting the revenues of the Carnatic, and the sanction given by them to the pretended debts of the nabob of Arcot. The bill, however, passed through both houses, and received the royal assent.

One of the most important subjects brought under the consideration of parliament during the session, was an attempt by Mr Pitt to establish a plan of commercial union between Great Britain and Ireland. This plan was proposed to the Irish House of Commons on the 7th of February, by Mr Ord, and consisted of ten articles, usually styled the Irish Propositions, which were passed with little debate, and an address of approbation voted to his majesty. On the 22d of the same month Mr Pitt introduced the subject to the British House of Commons. He expatiated on the false and oppressive policy which had long been pursued by government in regard to Ireland, in order to render her completely subservient to the interest and opu-

lence of this country; and concluded by proposing to allow the produce of the colonies to be imported into Britain through Ireland, and to equalize the duties on the produce and manufactures of both countries; in return for which concession it was stipulated, that the parliament of Ireland should irrevocably secure some provision for defraying the expense of protecting the commerce of the empire in time of peace. After some debates upon the subject, petitions from Liverpool, Paisley, Glasgow, Manchester, and other places, to the number of sixty, were presented against the measure; and from the 16th of March to the 12th of May the House of Commons were almost incessantly employed in hearing counsel and examining witnesses. Certain exceptions were now introduced to the general rule of admitting an equal commerce between the countries: corn, meal, flour, and beer, were excluded in favour of British agriculture; and various regulations were made to secure an effectual equality of duties upon every particular object of trade in both countries. The plan thus amended produced a variety of debates, in the course of which Lord North expressed his wish for a complete incorporative union of the two kingdoms, in preference to a partial settlement, which might prove the source of perpetual discord. The resolutions, however, were warmly opposed; and being carried by only a small majority, administration did not think proper to press the adoption of the scheme.

The American war had in some measure alienated the British nation from ideas of conquest and military splendour. Commercial pursuits were now chiefly valued, and formed the principal object of encouragement to the government, and of pursuit by the people; but to prosecute these with success, it was necessary to preserve a good understanding with the neighbouring powers; and this was effected, though with some difficulty, in consequence of certain foreign occurrences not unworthy of attention.

Joseph II. was at this time at the head of the house of Austria and of the Germanic body; and among the various projects which marked his restless career, there was one which, had it been attended with success, could scarcely have failed to affect the future condition of the Germanic body. He had entered secretly into a negotiation with the elector of Bavaria, then an infirm old man, for an exchange of the electorate of Bavaria in lieu of the provinces of the Austrian Netherlands, which were to be converted into a kingdom for the elector. Count Romanzof, the Russian minister to the diet of Frankfort, informed the Duke of Deux-ponts, nephew and heir to the elector, of the substance of this treaty; and at the same time assured him that it would be carried into execution, whether he consented to the exchange or not. In the month of January of this year the duke gave notice of the intended measure to Frederick II. king of Prussia, who regarded it as a project dangerous to his own independence, as well as to that of the other German states, and endeavoured instantly to spread an alarm through Europe. He alleged, that the proposed exchange was in the highest degree iniquitous and unfair; that though the population on both sides was nearly equal, the extent of territory on the side of Bavaria more than doubled that of the Low Countries, while their respective revenues were equally disproportioned; that in Bavaria, agriculture, commerce, and finance, were notoriously neglected, whereas in the Austrian Netherlands these resources had been extended to their utmost pitch; that, whilst the territory which the emperor hoped to acquire was capable of considerable improvement, that which he gave away might be expected to retrograde rather than to advance; that these circumstances, however, were of little importance, compared with the political consequences which must result from such a measure; that the Nether-

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lands being situated at a distance from the other Austrian dominions, had always proved a source of weakness, rather than of strength, to that power; that, although a considerable revenue was derived from these provinces, it was often dearly bought, in consequence of the wars occasioned by the vicinity of France; that great political efforts had recently been made by the court of Vienna to avoid all future grounds of quarrel with the French monarchy, and this had been accomplished by the marriage of an Austrian princess to the king of France; that the possession of Bavaria, from its vicinity to the rest of the Austrian dominions, would secure to the emperor a chain of territory from the banks of the Rhine along a great part of the course of the Danube, and give him such a preponderance as would overturn all power in Germany capable of resisting the head of the empire; and that this mighty country might, at no remote period, be consolidated into one mass, and Austria would then probably rank in every sense as the first power in Europe.

Thus reasoned Frederick the Great. Succeeding events seem to warrant a belief that such an acquisition of strength by the house of Austria might have proved of considerable utility to Europe; but at the time when the scheme was proposed it excited general apprehensions. The treaty for the exchange had been concluded under the auspices of Russia and France, and to them accordingly the king of Prussia addressed his remonstrances. But the emperor of Germany and the elector of Bavaria soon found their project so strongly disapproved of by other powers, that they absolutely disavowed it; whilst the court of France contented itself with replying to the remonstrance of the king of Prussia, that the exchange had been proposed, as depending upon the voluntary arrangement of the parties, but that, as the Duke of Deuxponts had refused his consent, the proposition of course became fruitless.

Frederick, in the mean time, exerted himself with great assiduity in negotiating a league with the electors of Hanover and Saxony, for the preservation of the Germanic constitution, and for preventing such cessations and exchanges of territory as might afterwards prove injurious to the balance of power in the empire. A treaty to this purpose was therefore concluded on the 23d of July, and several German princes acceded to it, among whom were the elector of Mentz, the landgrave of Hesse Cassel, the dukes of Brunswick, Namur, and Saxe-Gotha, and the prince of Anhalt. The elector of Hanover also entered readily into the transaction, and from that period an intimate connection commenced between the courts of London and Berlin. Some British politicians, however, supposed that the opposition made to the imperial project was unwise, as tending to excite a spirit of hostility against us on the part of Austria, which, of all the powers of the Continent, was considered as our most natural ally; and it was probably owing to the part taken by Britain in this transaction that the emperor published an edict prohibiting the importation of British manufactures into any part of the Austrian dominions. In the course of the summer also the French issued an edict restricting the sale of various articles of British manufacture, particularly saddlery, hosiery, woollen cloths, and hardware, unless upon payment of duties the amount of which was equivalent to a prohibition. To counteract these proceedings commercial treaties were negotiated with the courts of Petersburg and Versailles; that with the latter having been undertaken in pursuance of a provision in the definitive treaty of peace.

Parliament met on the 24th of January 1786. In the speech from the throne some notice was taken of the continental dispute above mentioned, which was said to have terminated in such a way as to threaten no interruption to the tranquillity of Europe. This excited some discus-

sion; but Mr Pitt declined entering into any defence of the Germanic league, as he and his colleagues in office had not interfered in the formation of it; observing that accident alone had placed the sovereignty of Hanover and of this country in the same hands, and desiring to have it understood that Great Britain was by no means bound by any leagues entered into by the elector of Hanover. Mr Fox, however, denied that the affairs of Hanover could be really separated from those of Britain. Supposing that it should hereafter appear necessary for Great Britain to join the court of Vienna against the league of the Germanic princes, and that the elector of Hanover should appear as one of those princes at the head of his own troops, he put the question, Whether a British army could be directed to act in a hostile manner against troops led by their sovereign in his character of elector of Hanover? When George I. purchased Bremen and Verden from Denmark, the minister of that day, General Stanhope, used precisely the same language, and told the House of Commons that they had nothing to do with his majesty's conduct respecting his electoral dominions. But the consequence was, that the resentment of the Swedish monarch Charles XII. on account of this transaction, threatened Great Britain with a most dangerous invasion; and the very next year General Stanhope was under the necessity of demanding additional supplies, to enable his majesty to defray the expenses to which he was exposed in consequence of his purchase.

The attention of parliament was again directed to the Duke of Richmond's plan of fortification. In consequence of the former debate on the subject, the project had been remitted to the consideration of a board of officers, of which the Duke of Richmond was appointed president; and which consisted, besides the president, of Lieutenant-generals Earl Percy, Earl Cornwallis, Sir Guy Carleton, Sir William Howe, Sir David Lindsay, Sir Charles Grey, Lord George Lennox, and John Burgoyne, and six major-generals, together with Vice-admirals Barrington and Milbank, Rear-admirals Graves and Lord Hood, and Captains Hotham, Macbride, Bowyer, Luttrell, Sir John Jervis, and Sir Andrew Snape Hammond. On the 10th of February Mr Pitt stated to the House of Commons that the board had reported to his majesty their approbation of the plan, as perfectly adequate to the defence intended, and as being at the same time the least expensive in the construction, and requiring a smaller force to defend the works, than any other that could be proposed. He also presented an estimate, which had been prepared by the board of engineers, of the expense necessary to construct the fortifications. The decision of the House of Commons, however, was delayed till the end of February, when the subject was again brought forward by Mr Pitt, who proposed a resolution, bearing, that to provide effectually for securing the dock-yards of Portsmouth and Plymouth by a permanent system of fortification, was an essential object for the safety of the state, intimately connected with the general defence of the kingdom, and necessary to enable the fleet to act with vigour and effect whenever its services were required. This led to a long and not very interesting debate, the result of which was, that upon a vote the house divided equally, when the speaker gave his casting vote in opposition to the measure. On the 17th of May, however, the question was revived by Mr Pitt, who proposed that the fortifications should still be carried on at Portsmouth and Plymouth, though upon a more limited scale; but the motion was opposed with much severity of language, and at length withdrawn.

The attention of parliament was for some time occupied with a proposal for reducing the laws relative to the militia into a general act, and providing for their being an-

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But the subject which occupied most attention during the session was the proposal of a sinking fund to be applied towards discharging the public debt. Mr Pitt had occasionally mentioned it, during the preceding session, as a great and important national measure which he intended to bring forward; and early in the present session he moved that certain papers should be laid upon the table of the House of Commons, to enable them to form an estimate of the annual amount of the national revenue and expenditure, from which a judgment might be formed of the existing disposable surplus, and of the sum it would be further necessary to provide to raise the total to the amount requisite to form the basis of the intended sinking fund. On the 7th of March he proposed the appointment by ballot of a select committee of nine persons to examine these papers, and to report the result to the house. He stated it as his intention to take every possible step to give complete satisfaction to the nation in a matter of such general concern; and he conceived that the solemnity of a committee, and the formality of a report, would answer the purpose better than a set of unconnected papers or the affirmation of a minister. The committee as balloted consisted of the Marquis of Graham, Mr William Grenville, Mr Edward Elliot, Mr Rose, Mr Wilberforce, Mr Beaufoy, Mr John Call, Mr Smith, and Mr Addington. When this committee had made its report, Mr Pitt, on the 29th March, proposed his plan to the Commons in a committee of the whole house. He congratulated parliament upon the prospects of the nation in a style of animated eloquence. He stated the revenue for the current year, as reported by the committee, to amount to L15,397,000. The interest of the national debt was L9,275,769, and the civil list L900,000, which, together with the whole other expenditure for the army and navy, and other establishments, amounted to L14,478,000; consequently there remained a surplus of the annual income, above the expenditure, of L900,000. One million he stated to be the sum annually to be contributed to the sinking fund; and to make up the sum of L1,000,000 wanted to complete this amount, he proposed small additional taxes upon spirits, timber, and hair powder and perfumery. The sum of L1,000,000 thus provided he proposed to place in the hands of commissioners appointed for that purpose, in quarterly payments of L250,000 each, to begin on the 5th of the following July. It was his wish that the commissioners should consist of persons of rank and distinction, the speaker of the House of Commons, the chancellor of the exchequer, the master of the rolls, the governor and deputy-governor of the bank of England, and the accountant-general of the high court of chancery. He alleged, that by laying out the sinking fund regularly at compound interest, the million to be applied would rise to a great amount in a period that was not very long in the life of an individual, and but an hour in the existence of a nation. It would diminish the debt of this country so much as to prevent the exigencies of war from ever raising it to the enormous height which they had hitherto done. In the period of twenty-eight years, the sum of a million, annually appropriated, would produce an income of four millions annually. By placing the sum in the hands of commissioners, to be applied by them quarterly to the purchase of stock, no sum would ever lie within the grasp of a minister great enough to tempt him to infringe upon this national revenue. It

could not be done by stealth, and a minister would not have the confidence to come to the house expressly to demand the repeal of so necessary a law.

Mr Fox approved in general of the institution of a sinking fund, but thought twenty-eight years too long a period to look forward to for the effect of the project. Before that term had arrived, it was not improbable that we might have another war; and a variety of circumstances might occur, which would operate as a temptation to a future chancellor of the exchequer, and a future House of Commons, to repeal the act, annul the institution, and divert the appropriation of its stock to the immediate services of the year. He stated two specific objections to the plan. The first was, that the sum appropriated ought not to have been made unalienable in time of war; and the second, that, by the institution, parliament being bound to nobody but itself, the whole plan was liable to be annihilated by a future parliament. Mr Fox repeated his objections at a future stage, and at last, in consequence of the acquiescence of Mr Pitt, introduced an amendment, that whenever a new loan should hereafter be made, the minister should not only propose taxes sufficient to pay the interest of the loan, but also to make good whatever it should be found expedient to take from the sinking fund to supply the necessities of the nation; meaning, that if, when a new loan of six millions was proposed, there should be one million in the hands of the commissioners, then the commissioners should take a million of the loan, and the *bonus* of that million should be received by them for the public, who would thus have only five millions to borrow. In the House of Lords, the other objection stated by Mr Fox was urged with some variation by Earl Stanhope, who expatiated on the danger which might occur, in future wars, of diverting the fund from its proper destination. But the bill nevertheless passed into a law without any alteration.

The establishment of a sinking fund appears to have been one of Mr Pitt's favourite schemes of finance; and, in fact, it was that which produced him the greatest degree of popularity; while, from his remaining in power during the long and expensive war which succeeded its establishment, it continued to be regularly and fully carried into effect. When a new loan was made, the minister not only proposed taxes sufficient to pay the annual interest of the new debt, but also to afford a surplus or sinking fund of one per cent. per annum, to be applied by the commissioners towards the extinction of the debt. It is almost superfluous to observe, that this scheme, from which such mighty results were anticipated, both by the political friends and opponents of the ministry, and which was loudly vaunted of as a monument raised to perpetuate his fame, is now known to every tyro in political science to have been bottomed on principles wholly fallacious; and the consequence has been, that some of its firmest supporters, having abjured the opinions which they originally entertained respecting it, afterwards united with those who had all along entertained sounder views, in putting an end to this expensive and cumbersome delusion, which had for a time imposed on the arithmetic as well as on the sense of the nation. The only effect of such a fund, when well contrived and steadily adhered to, seems to be, that it enables a nation to maintain its credit in difficult circumstances, and thus to carry on the accumulation of public debt to the highest possible amount, as well as to make trial in the completest manner of all the moral and political consequences of the funding system. We may add, that the project was not of Mr Pitt's contrivance; it formed only one, and that too not the most plausible, of three plans presented to him by Dr Price.

When the estimates for the navy were voted this year,

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At this time the British nation, recovered from the effects of the war, was enjoying considerable prosperity. The administration of justice, proceeding in the ordinary course sanctioned by the constitution, produced its usual and natural effects of tranquillity and general satisfaction. The sovereign, in consequence of his domestic virtues and regular life, was personally popular. The members of administration had obtained their offices under circumstances which originally secured the good will of the nation; and no public events had occurred to expose their characters to any severe trial, or to produce an alteration in the public opinion regarding them. Still, however, the most distinguished members of the late coalition, continuing to hold seats in parliament, naturally wished to attract the public notice, and to rescue themselves from the neglect into which they had of late fallen. For this purpose they appear to have looked towards our Indian empire for materials upon which to exert their talents and to demonstrate their public spirit; and accordingly, during the present session, an attempt was commenced by Mr Burke to bring to trial and punishment Warren Hastings, late governor-general of Bengal, for crimes alleged to have been committed in that country.

There is something in the nature of the British constitution, or rather, perhaps, in that of every free state, which renders conquest, or even the acquisition of foreign territories, in any form, not a little inconvenient. In the case of the British American territories, a constitution less or more resembling that of Great Britain had been established in every colony or province; and these separate constitutions had produced abundance of internal prosperity to the colonies; but the whole formed a disjointed empire, slightly bound together by a limited executive power, and destitute of a common legislature; and an attempt, made by the legislature of the parent state, to make laws for the whole of the subordinate communities, gave rise to a war which ended in the dismemberment of

the empire. The remaining foreign possessions, such as Ireland and the West India islands, might be supposed to remain in union with the metropolitan country chiefly in consequence of their weakness, which rendered its protection necessary to their safety, or made them incapable of erecting themselves into separate governments in opposition to its will. But the territories which had been acquired by the British in India were, in this respect, in a very peculiar situation. It might perhaps have been possible, by an incorporating union, and an extension of the privilege of representation, to combine into one firm and consolidated government the whole British islands, together with the American colonies; but with regard to the territory of Hindustan, any thing of this kind was altogether impracticable. That great and fertile country, uninhabited by men of a feeble race, and of different language, character, and religion, is incapable of being united to the British nation upon principles of equal political freedom. It had been originally acquired, not by a conquest made under the direct authority of the executive government of Britain, but by a company of merchants, who, by uniting the military superiority of Europeans with the arts of commercial men, contrived gradually to subjugate one of the fairest portions of the globe, containing a population many times greater than that of their native country. The progress of such a power towards empire was necessarily attended with the most cruel hardships to the natives of the subjugated country. When the mercantile invaders possessed abundance of European troops, they employed them in making direct conquests of additional territory; when these troops were exhausted by war or by the climate, or, having enriched themselves, had returned to Europe loaded with the spoils of the East, and left their former employers in that quarter in a state of considerable weakness, the servants of the Company then exerted their ingenuity to foment divisions among the native princes; and when they could no longer act as principals, they appeared as seconds in every quarrel, and obtained new territories as the reward of their insidious aid. With such views they formed and broke alliances without scruple; and, on receiving supplies of troops from Europe, they were never at a loss for pretences upon which to extend their dominion. All this was the natural result of the situation of the British East India Company with regard to the natives of Hindustan. But as the jealousy of the neighbouring states of Europe, together with their equal progress in the art of war, had long put an end to the extension of conquests, and produced much political moderation in the transactions of nations, many of the people of Great Britain learned with astonishment that their countrymen had conducted themselves in Hindustan in a manner which in Europe would have been regarded with abhorrence. Efforts, however, had been made to ameliorate as much as possible the government of India, by subjecting it, in a considerable degree, to the direct authority of the executive government of this country, instead of suffering it to remain totally vested in a company of merchants; and here it appears to have been wished that the affair should be suffered to rest, and that whatever was past should be overlooked and forgotten.

This, however, did not suit the present views of opposition. Mr Burke, in particular, had been led by an ardent imagination to interest himself deeply in the calamities suffered by the natives of India; and the policy of his party at this time coincided entirely with his feelings. Accordingly he endeavoured with much eagerness to bring to trial and punishment the most distinguished person who had recently figured upon the great theatre of Indian affairs. But great obstacles stood in the way of Mr Burke's proposed attempt to procure a parliamentary

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Reign of George III. conviction of Mr Hastings. He had to overcome a long series of unpopularity, the personal indifference which had been shown to him by the House of Commons, and their indisposition so much as to give him a hearing, together with the coldness of the nation at large regarding complaints of East India delinquency. All these, however, he surmounted by efforts of the most obstinate perseverance, and of consummate eloquence, upon the fertile subject of cruelty, oppression, and treachery, committed under the authority of the British government; in the East; the public attention was gradually attracted to the subject; and at last it formed the chief subject of conversation and of political discussion in all parts of the island.

Mr Hastings had arrived in England on the 16th of June 1785, and on the 20th of that month Mr Burke had given notice of his intention to move for an inquiry into the conduct of the ex-governor-general. On the day of the meeting of parliament, in January this year, Major Scott, the particular friend of Mr Hastings, publicly reminded Mr Burke of the menace he had thrown out, and requested Mr Burke speedily to decide upon the course he was to pursue. Accordingly, about the middle of February, this gentleman having resolved to proceed against Mr Hastings, by moving the House of Commons to impeach him at the bar of the House of Lords, endeavoured to prepare for substantiating the charges which were to be brought, by proposing that the house should order production of various papers; and motions to this effect were renewed by him at different periods. These motions gave rise to a variety of debates, in which Mr Dundas, who, as president of the board of control, now acted as minister for India affairs, together with Sir Lloyd Kenyon, master of the rolls, chiefly opposed Mr Burke, and threw considerable difficulties in his way. Mr Pitt appeared also to be favourable to Mr Hastings; but, upon the whole, he preferred assuming the character of a candid and impartial judge upon the occasion, affording neither protection to the accused nor favour to the accuser. At last, in the month of April, Mr Burke presented to the house his charges against Mr Hastings, twenty-one in number; and to these an additional article was afterwards added. The charges were of various degrees of importance; and some of them had sufficient weight to excite a considerable degree of public interest. Mr Hastings was accused of driving a whole people, the Rohillas, from their territory, without any show of cause for so doing; of arbitrarily confiscating the property of the native princes, and imprisoning them and their servants for the purposes of extortion; of entering into war with the Maharrattas without necessity, and treacherously delivering the Mogul into their hands on the conclusion of peace; together with a variety of other offences of minor importance. On the 26th of April Mr Hastings presented a petition, requesting to be furnished with a copy of the articles of impeachment, and to be heard in his defence against them before any witnesses should be examined. This request was at once granted; and Mr Hastings having appeared at the bar, stated the great efforts which he had made for the aggrandisement of the British power in the East, and entered into a defence of his conduct on the particular points upon which he had been accused.

He asserted that the Rohillas were a tribe of adventurers, in driving whom from a usurped territory he had only assisted in performing an act of necessary justice; that the princes or princesses whose property he was accused of having seized for the use of the conquerors, had deserved their misfortunes by their treachery and rebellion; that the war with the Maharrattas had not been commenced by him; that the terms of the pacification were almost universally considered as advantageous; and that the Mogul having thrown himself into their hands, was entitled

to no protection from the British government. Upon the other points he in like manner asserted, not only the innocence, but the meritorious nature of his conduct, resting his defence chiefly upon such arguments as conquering princes usually employ to justify encroachments upon their weaker neighbours.

On the 1st of June Mr Burke brought forward in the House of Commons his first charge, which related to the expulsion of the Rohillas from their country, to the number of sixty thousand men, women, and children. On this occasion Mr Burke, exerting all his eloquence, represented the prosecution as not merely a question respecting the character of an individual, or brought forward for the purpose of inflicting a hardship upon him, but as a measure necessary for the establishment of the principle of responsibility with regard to the future governors of our distant possessions, and therefore as a national and imperial question, decisive of the good or ill government of millions yet unborn. He described, in interesting terms, the character of the Rohillas, the simplicity of their manners, the prosperity of their country, and their zeal for agriculture and commerce; and he denied that there existed any plausible ground to justify the assistance which Mr Hastings had given to one of their rapacious neighbours to expel them from their territory. After a debate, however, the house decided that this charge did not contain sufficient matter of impeachment against Mr Hastings. The next article of crimination against Mr Hastings was founded upon his alleged oppressive conduct towards Cheit Sing, the rajah of Benares. From this prince he had first arbitrarily demanded payment of a sum of money, in addition to the ordinary tribute, and, on the rajah delaying payment, imposed upon him a fine of half a million sterling; then he insulted him by an ignominious arrest, and thereafter expelled him from his dominions. This charge was opened with great ability by Mr Fox, and opposed by Major Scott and Mr Grenville, who inveighed against the rajah for his alleged unwillingness to support the British power in a dangerous crisis, and for the favour he had shown the schemes of its enemies. By this time the repeated discussion of the subject had begun to interest the public; and pamphlets were published, in which Mr Hastings' character was violently attacked, and as eagerly defended. His conduct as a governor-general of India, however, appeared to the majority of the people so totally inconsistent with those ideas of equity which regulate the opinions of men in this country, that a violent degree of popular indignation was excited against him. Hitherto, however, he had been supported in the House of Commons by those who usually adhered to administration; though Mr Pitt himself had on all occasions declared his wish to act candidly as a judge, and to avoid treating the matter as a question to be supported by a particular party. But upon this article of charge concerning the rajah of Benares he entered into the views of Mr Fox; and having declared himself satisfied that Mr Hastings had in this case acted unjustifiably, it was determined by a majority that the accusation contained matter of impeachment against the late governor-general of Bengal.

During this session some further provisions were enacted for the better regulation of the government of India. On the 7th of March a motion was made by Mr Francis, and seconded by Mr Windham, for leave to bring in a bill to explain and amend the act, formerly brought in and carried through by Mr Pitt, for regulating Indian affairs. Mr Francis censured strongly three different parts of Mr Pitt's act; first, that which establishes a double government of India at home, by the court of directors and the board of control; secondly, the excessive power, by means of a constant casting voice in the council, which was bestowed

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The session of parliament terminated on the 11th of July, and during the remainder of the year the British empire enjoyed profound tranquillity. An incident, however, occurred, which called forth demonstrations of attachment to the person of the king from all orders of men in the kingdom. On alighting from his carriage on the 2d of August, a woman approached his majesty, under the pretence of offering a petition, and at the same time aimed a thrust at him with a knife, which, however, did no harm. Being instantly seized, and examined by some members of the privy council, with the assistance of several medical gentlemen, this woman, whose name was Margaret Nicholson, proved to be insane, and was ordered to be confined for life in Bethlehem Hospital. A public thanksgiving was ordered for his majesty's safety, and addresses of congratulation poured in from all parts of the country.

One of the most important measures of Mr Pitt's administration was carried into effect in the autumn of this year. It consisted of a commercial treaty, which, as we have already stated, Mr Eden was sent to negotiate with France, and which was concluded on the 26th of September. This treaty stipulated, in general terms, that there should be a perfect liberty of navigation and commerce between the subjects of the two sovereigns in all their European dominions, with the view of giving fair encouragement to the produce and manufactures of both countries; and a particular tariff was adjusted with regard to a great number of commodities, while all articles which it did not include were to be reciprocally imported on the terms allowed to the most favoured nations. Each of the monarchs reserved the right of countervailing, by additional taxes on certain commodities, the internal duties imposed on the manufactures, or the import charges paid on the raw material; and it was also declared, that if either of the sovereigns should be at war, every thing should be deemed free which might be found in the ships of the respective nations, with the exception of goods usually deemed contraband, even though the whole or a part of the lading should belong to the enemies of the other state.

This treaty appears to have been acceptable to a considerable majority of the nation. When parliament assembled on the 23d of January 1787, it was announced in the speech from the throne, and formed the first subject of deliberation. When the usual address to the throne was moved, Mr Fox remarked that the treaty in question

ought to be examined with much jealousy, on account of its introducing an innovation into the established system of our policy; that all the wars of Great Britain had been wars of necessity; and that the jealousy of the power of France has been founded upon the fullest experience of her ambitious character. If this was a mere commercial treaty, the framers of it had only to prove that the new channel of trade which it opened would not obstruct, or would be more beneficial than, the other ancient channels which this kingdom had long been in possession of, and which had been found to be the sources of her commercial wealth and prosperity. But if, on the other hand, the treaty was intended as a political measure, and if ministers had in view such a close and intimate connection with France as would in future render it difficult for the two countries to go to war, strong and satisfactory reasons would be required for having pursued and concluded a measure so new in the history of this kingdom, and of such vast magnitude and importance. Mr Pitt reprobated the principles stated by Mr Fox, in as far as they went to sanction the policy of a constant animosity with France. Such a doctrine militated in the most direct manner possible both against humanity and common sense; for if war is the greatest of all evils, and commerce the chief blessing which a country can enjoy, it must be the duty of those to whom public affairs are intrusted, to endeavour as much as possible to render the one permanent, and to remove the prospect and danger of the other. This was the object of the present treaty; and the advantages likely to arise from it would operate upon succeeding administrations in both countries, so as to induce them to avoid a war as long as it could be done with honour and prudence, and would also strengthen the resources of this nation for carrying on hostilities whenever these should become indispensably necessary. This was the true method of making peace a blessing. The quarrels between France and Britain had not only continued to harass those great nations themselves, but had frequently embroiled the rest of Europe, and had disturbed the tranquillity of the most remote parts of the world. In time past they had acted as if they were intended by nature for the destruction of each other; but he hoped the period had now arrived when they would justify the order of the universe, and show that they were better calculated for the purposes of friendly intercourse and mutual benevolence.

On the 12th of February the house resolved itself into a committee for the purpose of considering the commercial treaty with France, when Mr Pitt entered into a full explanation and defence of the measure. He considered it in three points of view; as affecting our manufactures, our revenues, and our political situation. With respect to the first, he showed, that though the treaty had been formed upon principles of strict reciprocity, yet that this country must, from the very nature of the case, unavoidably have the advantage. With regard to the effect of the treaty upon the revenue, he remarked, that although a considerable reduction must undoubtedly take place of the duties upon French wines, and even upon Portuguese wines, should the provisions of the Methuen treaty be still kept in force, yet this would be balanced by the increased consumption, and by putting an end to the fraudulent manufacture of home-made wine, which was brought to market as foreign wine, a practice which no regulations of excise had hitherto been able to suppress. And with reference to the political tendency of the treaty, he recurred to his former observations on that subject, which it is unnecessary to repeat.

On the part of the manufacturers, it had been objected to this treaty, that the proposed intimate connection with France would afford opportunities of enticing away our

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During the present session a plan for consolidating into one act of parliament the whole of the duties imposed by the statutes of customs and excise, was brought forward by Mr Pitt, and received the universal approbation of the House of Commons. The duties imposed upon French merchandise, in pursuance of the late commercial treaty, were also included in the same act, although that part of the measure was resisted by opposition.

On the 28th of March Mr Beaufoy, at the request of the deputies of the dissenting congregations about London, moved for the repeal of the corporation and test acts. He observed that the test act was originally levelled against the Roman Catholics, and the corporation act against those sectaries who had agitated the kingdom in the times of Charles I. and during the usurpation, but with whose character the dissenters of the present age had nothing in common; and he contended that, as every man had an undoubted right to judge for himself in matters of religion, he ought not, on account of the exercise of that right, to incur any punishment, or to be branded with what is undoubtedly a mark of infamy, an exclusion from military service and civil trust. He referred to the examples of Scotland, Holland, Russia, Prussia, and the dominions of the emperor, in none of which religious opinions were now made the ground of civil disqualification. Lord North spoke against the proposed repeal, chiefly on the footing of the hazard attending innovation. He denied that a man was subjected to any punishment because he did not choose to receive the sacrament of the Lord's Supper according to

the usage of the church of England. He only deprived himself of a privilege which he might otherwise enjoy, and which the law, for the safety of the church, had limited to persons of particular opinions. Mr Pitt supported the same view of the question, upon the ground of the danger to the established church which would result from intrusting official situations to dissenters. Mr Fox supported the motion in favour of the dissenters; remarking, however, upon this occasion, that, from their conduct in a late political revolution, he could not be suspected of being biased by an improper partiality towards them. The motion was lost on a division by a majority of seventy-eight.

On the 20th of April Mr Alderman Newnam brought under the view of the House of Commons the pecuniary situation of the Prince of Wales, whose affairs had at this time fallen into a state of embarrassment. In 1783, when the prince came of age, Mr Fox and his colleagues, who were then in office, wished to grant him an annual income of £100,000; but his majesty insisted that he should only be allowed one half of that amount. In the year 1786 the prince, having contracted a debt of £100,000, exclusive of £50,000 expended upon Carlton House, applied to his majesty to obtain relief from this incumbrance; and on receiving a refusal, he instantly dismissed the officers of his court, ordered his horses to be sold and the works at Carlton House to be stopped, and reduced his household to the scale of that of a private gentleman. By these savings an annual sum of £40,000 was vested in trustees for the payment of his debts. But this decisive and spirited conduct was represented at court as disrespectful to the king; and from the period in question his majesty's dissatisfaction with the prince appears to have been no longer concealed. On the occasion of the assault made upon the king's person by Margaret Nicholson, no notice of the accident was sent by the court to the Prince of Wales; and when, on receiving the intelligence, he instantly repaired to Windsor, he was received there by the queen, but the king did not see him. In these circumstances the prince permitted his situation to be brought before the House of Commons, with a view of submitting his conduct to the judgment of the public. Accordingly, on the day already mentioned, Mr Newnam demanded of the chancellor of the exchequer whether ministers intended to bring forward any proposition for the relief of the Prince of Wales; at the same time alleging, that it would be disgraceful to the nation to suffer him to remain longer in his present reduced circumstances. Mr Pitt replied, that he had received no commands from his majesty upon the subject, and that without such it was not his duty to bring forward an affair of this nature. Mr Newnam then intimated his intention of bringing forward a motion on the subject upon the 4th of May. But on the 24th of April Mr Pitt requested to know the precise nature of the intended motion; stating his wish to avoid a discussion of the subject, and adding, that if it was persisted in, he would be under the necessity of bringing before the public some circumstances of extreme delicacy. At the same time Mr Rolle, an adherent of the ministry, declared that the question involved matter by which the constitution both in church and state might be essentially affected. This menace was believed to allude to an intimate connection supposed to subsist between the prince and Mrs Fitzherbert, a lady of a Roman Catholic family, with whom it was alleged that the prince had been married both by Catholic and Protestant clergymen, although such a proceeding, even if it had taken place, could be productive of no legal effects, in consequence of the provisions of the royal marriage-act. Mr Newnam replied, that his intended motion would be for an address to his majesty to relieve the Prince of Wales from his present difficulties; and when some members expressed a wish that

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But the subject which chiefly occupied the attention of parliament during the present session was the accusation of Mr Hastings. After examining Mr Middleton and Sir Elijah Impey as witnesses in the beginning of February, Mr Sheridan, on the 7th of that month, opened the third charge against Mr Hastings, which set forth, that without justice, or any excuse of political necessity, he had seized the lands, and confiscated the treasures, of the begums or princesses of Oude, the mother and grand-daughter of the reigning nabob, and that he had even compelled the latter to become the instrument of this robbery. Mr Sheridan's speech lasted five hours and a half. The subject of the charge was well fitted for a display of all the powers of pathetic eloquence, owing to the rank and sex of the parties whom, on this occasion, Mr Hastings was accused of having treated with the most barbarous rapacity, treachery, and cruelty. Every advantage was taken of these circumstances by the eloquent accuser; and Mr Sheridan's discourse was considered as a model of splendid and impressive oratory. When he sat down, the whole house, which was filled with members, peers, and strangers, instantly joined in a loud and long-continued tumult of applause, expressing their approbation in the irregular mode of repeatedly clapping with their hands. Mr Burke declared it to be the most astonishing effort of eloquence, argument, and wit united, of which there was any record or tradition; Mr Fox said, that all that he had ever heard or read, when compared with it, vanished like vapour before the sun; and Mr Pitt asserted, that it surpassed all the eloquence of ancient or modern times, and possessed every resource which genius or art could furnish to control and agitate the human mind. After a short suspension of the debate, some of Mr Hastings' friends attempted to speak in reply, but found it impossible to procure a hearing. At last some members proposed, that for the sake of decorum, the debate should be adjourned; and this proposal was carried. On the following day Mr Francis resumed the charge, which was opposed by Mr Burgess, Major Scott, Mr Nichols, Mr Vansittart, and Mr Alderman le Mesurier. After having heard the arguments on both sides, Mr Pitt rose, and having stated the sense he entertained of the high importance of the procedure against Mr Hastings, and his endeavours to give to every fact stated in each particular charge the fullest investigation, declared himself fully satisfied that criminality was brought home to Mr Hastings, though not perhaps to the full extent alleged by the accusers. The motion for accusation was accordingly carried, upon a division, by a very large majority.

At a future period of the session other charges were

brought forward, and opened by Mr Thomas Pelham, Sir James Erskine, Mr Windham, and Mr Francis. Mr Pitt **Reign of George III.** had adopted the cause of the accusers, and on some occasions, though in a very mild tone, Mr Dundas did the same. At one period Lord Hood stood forward, and, in a very solemn manner, requested the attention of the house to the consequences of proceeding, with too scrupulous a nicety, to canvass the conduct of those who had filled stations abroad of high difficulty and important trust. Certain actions, which appeared to those at a distance in a very criminal light, were yet, he alleged, on a nearer investigation, perfectly justifiable on the grounds of absolute and indispensable necessity; and if the dread of an impeachment by parliament were to be hung over every commander in whose hands was placed the defence of our national possessions, it must necessarily operate as a dangerous restraint on their exertions, when it was considered that no general nor admiral had scarcely ever been fortunate enough to conduct himself in the performance of his duty, so as not occasionally to fall into circumstances in which the public service compelled him to do things in themselves neither pleasing to his feelings, nor strictly legal, but, from the indispensable necessities of their situation, perfectly justifiable. But Mr Pitt denied that these sentiments had any application to the case of Mr Hastings, since no adequate political necessity had been pointed out which could justify his conduct. In the course of the proceedings, also, it appeared that several members were disposed to consider the merits of Mr Hastings as in some measure compensating his crimes; and thus, although they voted his conduct criminal on particular occasions, they had an intention of voting in his favour when the general question should come to be proposed about the propriety of proceeding to impeachment. But Major Scott took an opportunity to declare that Mr Hastings and his friends wished to decline such a mode of defence; and he read to the house as a part of his own speech, a paper signed by Mr Hastings, in which he requested, if a general vote of criminality should pass against him, that they would further proceed instantly to an impeachment, and thus afford him an opportunity of defending himself judicially.

A committee was at length appointed to prepare articles of impeachment against Mr Hastings. It consisted of Mr Burke, Mr Fox, Mr Sheridan, Sir James Erskine, the Right Honourable Thomas Pelham, the Right Honourable William Wyndham, the Honourable St Andrew St John, John Anstruther, Esq. William Adam, Esq. M. A. Taylor, Esq. Welbore Ellis, Esq. the Right Honourable Frederick Montagu, Sir Grey Cooper, Sir Gilbert Elliot, Dudley Long, Esq. Lord Maitland, the Honourable George Augustus North, General Burgoyne, and Mr Grey. An attempt was made by Mr Burke to procure the appointment of Mr Philip Francis as a member of this committee, but without success. On the 25th of April Mr Burke presented the articles of impeachment, which were read, and ordered to be printed, and considered on the 9th of May. Upon that day Lord Hood repeated his former arguments, and was supported by Mr Smith and the notorious John Wilkes. This last person insisted strongly on the silence of the natives of India respecting the dreadful oppression said to have been practised against them, and attributed the greater part of what appeared criminal in the conduct of Mr Hastings to the craving and avaricious policy of this country, whose demands had in some instances driven Mr Hastings to the use of means not strictly justifiable. The amount of the charges, supposing the facts to be true, was, in his opinion, this, that Mr Hastings, by oppression, by injustice, and by corruption, had obtained for the East India Company nine millions and a half sterling. Mr Wilkes thought

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the acts complained of politic and just, and declared that he could not vote for the impeachment of Mr Hastings, while he benefited by his misdeeds. He added, that it appeared incomprehensible to him how gentlemen who condemned his actions suffered a day to pass without proposing retribution to the sufferers. The lord advocate of Scotland, Mr Ilay Campbell, also supported this view; considering the necessities of the Company, and the dangerous crisis of their affairs, as grounds of justification for the strong measures pursued by Mr Hastings, in order to extricate them; and declaring that, as the Company had actually reaped the benefit of them, and so far approved of them as never to signify any intention of restitution, he could not conceive with what propriety Mr Hastings could be impeached. Mr Pitt acknowledged that many measures during the administration of Mr Hastings were uncommonly brilliant, and that in these his merits were unquestionable; but he trusted that no man who seriously regarded the honour of the House of Commons would think that the justice of the country could admit of any compromise whatever.

The question of impeachment was therefore carried by a large majority; and on the 10th of May, at the bar of the House of Lords, Mr Burke, in the name of the House of the Commons of Great Britain, impeached Warren Hastings, Esq. late governor-general of Bengal, of high crimes and misdemeanors; and informed the Lords that the Commons would, with all convenient speed, exhibit and make good articles against him. On the 21st of the same month, upon the motion of Mr Burke, Mr Hastings was taken into the custody of the serjeant at arms of the house; but he was immediately admitted to bail by the House of Lords, himself in the sum of £20,000, and two sureties in £10,000 each. But as the session of parliament was prorogued on the 30th of May, the trial was necessarily postponed to another session, and by various delays it was ultimately protracted to an extraordinary length.

The impeachment of Mr Hastings, from the attention which it excited, and the talents which were exerted in carrying it through, undoubtedly forms an event of considerable importance in British history. It ended in the acquittal of the party accused; but the immense expense which he incurred, and the uneasiness which he must have suffered from the odium excited against him, unquestionably amounted to a very severe punishment. A British House of Commons held him guilty of inhumanity, rapacity, perfidy, and tyranny, towards a numerous and civilised people, who had been subjected to his power; and these sentiments were so widely diffused throughout Great Britain, that the minister of the day, always studious of popularity, thought it necessary to join in the general current of opinion. But to enable the reader to appreciate correctly the merits of Mr Hastings, or the reasonableness of the accusations which were brought against him, it is necessary to consider correctly the situation in which that gentleman stood. He was invested by the British East India Company with absolute power over a large portion of Hindustan, in order to govern for the profit of the Company, and if possible to acquire for them still more extensive territories. To fulfil the purposes for which he was employed, it was necessary for him to procure a large revenue for the Company, and at the same time to enable the young men of rank, whom they sent out in their service, to return speedily to Britain loaded with wealth; these being the only objects on account of which the East India Company, or the British nation, had made efforts for the conquest of the East. But such objects evidently imply, not that Hindustan was to be mildly and generously governed, but that it was to be plundered to the utmost

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extent which it could bear without ruin. Accordingly, in 1782, Mr Hastings, in one of his letters, complained strongly of the cruelty of his situation, and of the expensive establishments and offices which he was under the necessity of constituting in India, in order to gratify the avarice of his employers; declaring that he had at that time about him two hundred and fifty persons, the younger sons of the first families in Britain, all looking up to him for patronage, and expecting to be put in possession of sudden riches. But these riches, it is evident, could not be drawn from the natives of Hindustan without much oppression; and when this oppression produced rebellion, or combinations of the native princes against the British power, it became necessary to be guilty of further oppression, or more grievous extortion, to collect means by which to overcome the resistance of an oppressed people. It is admitted on all hands that Mr Hastings was almost unboundedly successful in the service of his employers. He sent home annually great numbers of men loaded with the plunder of the East; while at the same time, by great activity and intrepidity, he collected resources wherewith to maintain and extend the British power, and was enabled to support it in all quarters against the most extensive combinations of the princes of that country. Now there are two systems of morality according to which the character of such a man as Mr Hastings may be tried. The one is founded upon the principle of obedience to his employers, and fidelity to the trust reposed in him; and the other upon the eternal law of humanity. According to the first of these, that conduct is most worthy of applause which tends in the highest degree to promote the interest of those whom we serve; and, considered in this point of view, the merits of Warren Hastings have seldom been surpassed. It is true that he plundered the provinces of the East; but it was to aggrandise and enrich his country that he did so. He accounted their persons and fortunes as of little consideration; but he did so because he was the devoted servant of Britain. Accordingly, the French, whose public enemy he had been, regarded him with admiration, and uniformly extolled his actions as more than human. But if, in opposition to all this, we are to weigh the conduct of Mr Hastings by those maxims of morality which assume the immutable law of humanity as the rule by which human actions ought to be regulated, there can be no doubt that he must be condemned. He can only be regarded as one of those robbers of nations, to whose crimes historians and poets have given a too fatal celebrity. He was guilty of plundering and oppressing a pacific race of men, at the extremities of the earth, in whose affairs neither he nor his country had any right to interfere. But the principal criminals in this case were the British East India Company, the British legislature, and the British nation, who sent him upon such a service. Mr Hastings was only the guilty tool of a guilty people; and surely it will become the British House of Commons, which had authorized the acquisition of conquests, or, in other words, sanctioned rapine and oppression, in the East, and whose constituents had become rich by the plunder or the profits of such enterprises, to accuse as a criminal the most successful servant of the state. John Wilkes and the lord advocate for Scotland appear, therefore, to have rested Mr Hastings' defence upon an unserviceable footing, when they considered his crimes as services, which he was employed by his country to perform for its aggrandisement, and for the moral rectitude of which he could not be responsible to that power from which he derived his commission, and which scrupled not to reap the fruit of his labours.

During the year 1787, the amity subsisting between Britain and France seemed likely to be disturbed, in consequence of the affairs of Holland. The grounds of dif-

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ference, indeed, were speedily adjusted; but the events out of which they arose are worthy of notice, on account of their tendency to explain some future occurrences in the history of Europe. The state of the Dutch republic always had been regarded as of much importance by Great Britain. That country, being situated upon the mouths of the navigable rivers which communicate with some of the most important parts of the European continent, holds as it were the keys of the different passages by which our manufactures reach their places of ultimate sale and consumption; and in the most important efforts for reducing the power of France, the Dutch had acted along with the British nation. In the history of the United Provinces, during a couple of centuries, two parties were always found struggling for superiority. The one was that of the house of Orange, which had been originally raised to power in consequence of the talents of its chiefs, united with their rank and property, which had induced the states to intrust to them the direction of their armies, first against the Spanish monarchy, from which the united provinces had originally revolted, and afterwards against the power of France. By their great public services, the princes of the house of Orange had established in their own favour a kind of hereditary claim to the offices which they held in the republic, of stadtholder, captain-general of the forces, and admiral; and thus there existed in their persons, in succession, a kind of limited monarchy, by which the Dutch republic was influenced and led, rather than formally governed. The second party in the Dutch republic consisted of a kind of aristocracy, composed of the senates or town-councils of different cities, which possessed the power of nominating to the vacancies in their own order, that is, of electing their own successors in office. This party was usually denominated the Party of the States, or the Republican Party. Its members were, in point of form, the sovereigns of the country, as well as the wealthiest individuals in it; and the chief constitutional control which the stadtholder possessed over them, was founded on a regulation established by William III. prince of Orange, in 1674, by which he enjoyed a negative in the elections of town governments, and a power, in certain cases, of introducing members into them. But it is to be observed, that the mass of the people, who always find greater safety under the dominion of one superior than under that of a multitude of petty local chiefs, were decidedly attached to the house of Orange, or to the power of the stadtholder, in opposition to that of the town senates or republican party; and the ancient nobles also, together with the clergy of the established church, and the officers of the army and navy, adhered to the same family, and thereby enabled it on ordinary occasions to support its power against the party of the states.

During the participation of the United Provinces in the late war against Great Britain, a proposal had been made to enrol bodies of volunteers in the different towns, for the purpose of internal defence. The senates of the towns, that is, the aristocratical, or, as they called themselves, the republican party, encouraged the formation of these armed bodies of burghers, over whom at their first enrolment they had complete influence, as affording them a kind of counterpoise against the military power, which, although paid by them, was commanded by the stadtholder. But these bodies of citizens, as soon as they had been trained to the use of arms, began to be sensible of their importance. The opinions propagated in North America during the war were known over all Europe, and being received with considerable avidity by the Dutch volunteers, produced in that country a kind of third or democratic party, the object of which was to procure for the citizens of the towns a share in the nomination of the magistrates. But as the

volunteer associations were originally the creatures of the senates or aristocracy, for the purpose of counteracting the power of the stadtholder, so they appear, in their first movements, to have been directed by that faction. One of these movements took place at Utrecht. The armed burghers, amounting to upwards of two thousand, presented a petition to the states of the province of Utrecht, requesting them to abolish the regulation of 1674, by which the stadtholder was enabled to influence the nomination of the magistracy; and they presented an address of a similar nature to the town senate of Utrecht, and to the prince of Orange. As might have been expected, the answer of the prince was unfavourable; but the magistrates of Utrecht, in compliance with the wishes of the armed burghers, proceeded to fill up a vacancy in their own number without consulting the prince. This event occurred in January 1784; but it appears that, in the course of the same year, either from the intrigues of the stadtholder's court, or a dread of betaking themselves to the assistance of the new and dangerous democratic party, the states of the province and town senate of Utrecht deserted the cause of the armed burghers, whom they themselves had instigated to action, and recalled or annulled the steps towards innovation which they had previously taken. Meanwhile the senate and the armed burghers continued alternately to menace each other. But, by degrees, a spirit of political reform diffused itself from Utrecht to the different towns in the provinces where bodies of volunteers or armed burghers had been established. The armed burghers of Utrecht elected a representative body to watch over the management of public affairs, and various other towns followed the example; but these representative bodies soon quarrelled with the old senates; and the prince of Orange appears to have had it in his power to select either of the parties he might think fit as his adherents. His ancient enemies were the aristocracy or town senates; but as he could not, without a total alteration of the constitution of the United Provinces, derive a regular and legal support from the bodies of armed burghers, he resolved to support the ancient magistracies, and to rest his power upon its former footing of influence over these magistracies, though he knew them to be his rivals in political importance. It would seem, however, that the aristocracy of the province of Holland, who had always been the most decided enemies of the family of Orange, were not satisfied with the disposition of the prince to support the ancient constitution, and resolved to undermine or overthrow his power, even at the hazard of a revolution, which must be equally fatal to their own. But this aristocratical body was not of an enterprising character, and rather waited than attempted to direct the course of political events; while, in consequence of the support afforded by the stadtholder to the senates of Utrecht and other places, the armed burghers throughout the whole United Provinces became disposed to act in opposition to him. Meanwhile the populace of the Hague retained their usual attachment to his person and family. On the 4th of September 1785, twelve volunteers of the corps of the town of Leyden appeared at the Hague in uniform. Offended by this apparent defiance, the populace attacked and drove them into a neighbouring house, the windows of which they smashed; but a part of the garrison, without interfering with the populace, took the volunteers into custody, and sent them home privately by night. This riot, however, served as a pretext to the states of Holland for superseding the prince of Orange in the command of the garrison at the Hague, which they intrusted to the deputies of Haarlem, a town long noted for its zeal in opposition to the stadtholder; and as the prince had been engaged in endless controversies with the states of Holland, in which the strength

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of the aristocratical party was concentrated, this affront drove him to the resolution of leaving the Hague, which he did on the 14th September 1785. He applied for protection to Great Britain, whose cause he had uniformly supported, and to the king of Prussia, who was the uncle of his wife. The aristocratical party, on the contrary, made application to the court of Versailles, which it had supported by entering into the confederacy against Great Britain, and from which it had always received encouragement; and at the same time it endeavoured to effect a union with the armed burghers.

In the mean time Frederick II. of Prussia died, and was succeeded by his nephew, Frederick William, the brother-in-law of the stadtholder. The French court appeared to espouse with vigour the combined aristocratical and democratical parties in the United Provinces; but the new king of Prussia hesitated to engage in a dispute with France; and there is little doubt that, had the French on this occasion shown themselves ready to act with vigour in support of their ally in Holland, the stadtholder must have fallen before his enemies. But the French monarchy, under a benevolent and well-meaning though weak prince, was at this period rapidly sinking into a state of great feebleness, owing to the extreme embarrassment of its finances.

A negotiation was indeed proposed between the courts of France and Berlin, for the purpose of adjusting, in some friendly manner, the differences between the stadtholder and his enemies. But the weakness of France becoming gradually more apparent, Prussia and Great Britain were induced to take a more decisive part in the affairs of Holland, chiefly in consequence of the suggestions of the British ambassador at the Hague, Sir James Harris. The stadtholder, who had now established himself at Nimeguen, was a man of little activity or enterprise; but his princess being of a different character, ventured to undertake a journey to the Hague, unaccompanied by her husband, probably with a view to what actually happened. On the 28th of June 1787 she was arrested by some troops of the opposite party; and this circumstance afforded an excuse to the king of Prussia for interfering in the internal affairs of the United Provinces, in order to demand reparation for the insult offered to his sister.

A Prussian army, commanded by the Duke of Brunswick, the brother-in-law of the king of Great Britain, immediately prepared to invade Holland; and to secure additional aid to the Prince of Orange, a treaty was concluded between Great Britain and the landgrave of Hesse-Cassel, for the assistance of twelve thousand troops. In the mean time the United Provinces remained in a state of great internal distraction. The defects of their political constitution had originally occasioned the appointment of a stadtholder; and there had yet been substituted in its stead no simple system, which, by doing away the distinctions of states and provinces, might unite the force of the country, for the purpose of enabling it to resist such powerful aggression as that with which it was now threatened. The promised aid from France did not arrive; and although troops had been levied by the states of Holland, the chief command of them was intrusted to the ringrave of Salm, a man whose character appears to have inspired little confidence. Meanwhile the Duke of Brunswick, at the head of a powerful army, entered the country. The reputation of the Prussian armies in Europe was at this time extremely great; and the frontier towns of Holland, which were capable of resisting regular sieges, were now taken without a struggle. It is unnecessary to detail the progress of the Prussian troops, which was extremely rapid, since in little more than a fortnight the republican party found itself confined to the city of Amsterdam. This city was besieged on the first of October; and after much negotia-

tion, and a variety of attacks, it admitted a foreign garrison to take possession of its gates. The influence of France was thus totally annihilated in Holland, and the authority of the stadtholder restored; but it was restored by the power of Prussia and Britain alone; and the consequence was, that a decided enmity to these two countries, from that period, took possession of the minds of a great portion of the inhabitants of the Dutch territories.

When the British parliament met on the 27th of November 1787, the most remarkable circumstance alluded to in the king's speech was the state of Holland. It was there mentioned, that the disputes in the republic of the United Provinces had become so critical as to endanger their constitution and independence; that his majesty had endeavoured by good offices to maintain the lawful government of those countries, and judged it necessary to explain his intention of counteracting forcible interference on the part of France; that, accordingly, when his most Christian majesty, in consequence of an application for assistance by the party which had usurped the government of Holland, had notified his intention of granting their request, his majesty had declared that Britain could not remain an unconcerned spectator, and immediate orders had been issued for augmenting the forces both by sea and land; that the rapid success of the Prussian troops having soon after enabled the provinces to re-establish their lawful government, an amicable explanation had ensued between him and the most Christian king; and that both parties had engaged to disarm, and to place their naval establishments on the same footing as at the beginning of the year. When the address was moved, Mr Fox took an opportunity of expressing the fullest approbation of the measures which had been lately pursued, and took credit to himself as one of those who had invariably been of opinion that this country is at all times deeply interested in the situation of affairs upon the Continent, and ought, whenever occasion required, to take an active and vigorous part in preserving the balance of power in Europe. In the House of Lords the Bishop of Landaff also expressed his satisfaction at seeing the republic of the United Provinces again united in its views with Great Britain.

During the interference of Great Britain and Prussia in the affairs of Holland, and whilst a dread was entertained that the discontented party in the provinces might receive assistance from France, and preparations were on that account made for fitting out a fleet, the lords of the admiralty had promoted sixteen captains of the navy to the rank of admirals. In this promotion a selection had been made, by which upwards of forty senior captains were passed over; a circumstance which gave rise to various debates in parliament. To understand the subject, it is necessary to remark, that in 1718 an order of council directed the lords of the admiralty, in promoting officers to the rank of admirals in the navy, to prefer the senior captains, providing only that they were duly qualified for the rank to which they were to be promoted. And by a subsequent order of 1747 the lords of the admiralty were authorized to place such captains as should be found incapable, by reason of age or infirmity, of serving as admirals, upon the list of superannuated admirals, usually called the list of the yellow admirals. In the promotion above mentioned the board of admiralty had offered to place upon the list of yellow or superannuated admirals most of the captains who were passed over; but these, from their capacity for future service, conceiving themselves entitled to the rank of acting admirals, had refused the retreat which was offered them; and a general disgust prevailed among the officers in the navy, on finding that their hopes of employment in active service must at all times depend on their interest with the first lord of the admiralty. On the 20th of February

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1788 Lord Rawdon, in the House of Lords, stated their case, and proposed an address to his majesty upon the subject. But the first lord of the admiralty, Lord Howe, justified the exercise of a discretionary power by the board in promoting navy captains to the rank of acting admirals, upon the ground that a man might be fit to command a single ship who ought not to be intrusted with the care of a fleet; and Lord Sandwich admitted the impropriety of interfering with the executive government in an affair of this nature: upon which Lord Rawdon's proposal was rejected. The same subject was also brought before the House of Commons in various forms, and supported by almost all the naval officers who had seats in the house. But Mr Pitt deflected the admiralty, by declaring that no degree of misconduct had been stated sufficient to authorize the interference of parliament with the exercise of its powers; and the board was protected from censure by a small majority.

At this time a bill was brought into parliament for subjecting to higher penalties than formerly all persons who should export wool from the country, the object of it being to confirm the monopoly enjoyed by our own manufacturers in that article. The manufacturers asserted, that thirteen thousand packs of British wool were annually smuggled into France, which tended to raise the price of the commodity against our own manufacturers. Several country gentlemen, however, opposed the bill, as an unjust hardship upon the profits of land in this country, which ought to have the world open as a market for its productions; but the minister, who was aware of the importance of enjoying popularity with the commercial part of the nation, gave full countenance to the bill, which accordingly passed into a law.

In his financial exposition of the revenue, Mr Pitt made some remarks as to the improving state of the country, which are not unworthy of being noticed. He stated that the receipt of the permanent taxes, in the year 1787, exclusive of the land and malt tax, had been £13,000,000, whereas the receipt of the taxes in the year 1783 had only been £10,184,000. Thus there was an increase of revenue amounting to three millions, of which not more than one million and a half accrued from new taxes. In trade, navigation, and fisheries, the progressive improvement had kept pace with the increase of revenue. In the year 1772 the imports were £14,500,000, and the exports £16,000,000; in 1787 the imports were about £15,800,000, and the exports amounted to £16,600,000. Navigation had in like manner increased. The Newfoundland fishery in 1773 produced 516,000 quintals; but in 1786 it produced 732,000. In 1773 the Greenland fishery gave employment to 27,000 tons of shipping; but in 1786 the amount employed was 53,000. The southern whale fishery, a new and valuable branch of trade, which only commenced at the beginning of the last war, had also prospered equally. In this fishery, in 1785, there were employed eighteen ships, producing £20,000, whereas in 1787 there were employed thirty-eight ships, producing £107,000. The general result, therefore, showed that the commerce and industry of the country were in a prosperous condition, and extending themselves in every direction.

On the 8th of June Mr Pitt called the attention of the house to the compensation which was intended to be made to the American loyalists, on account of the losses sustained by them from their adherence to this country during the American war. He divided the loyalists who had made claims of compensation into four classes. In the first class he ranked those who had resided in America at the commencement of the war, and who had been obliged to abandon their estates and property, which were seized and confiscated by the Americans, and he proposed

that loyalists of this class who had not lost more than £10,000 should receive full compensation; for losses above that sum, and below £35,000, ninety per cent. on the excess above £10,000; for losses above £35,000 and under £50,000 eighty-five per cent. on the excess above £10,000; and for losses above £50,000 eighty per cent. on all above £10,000. The next class of claimants, consisting of those who had lost property in America, but who had resided in England during the war, Mr Pitt proposed to indemnify also in full to the amount of £10,000; but that all whose claims amounted to from £10,000 to £30,000 should suffer a deduction of twenty per cent., and a further additional deduction of twenty per cent. in progression upon every additional £50,000 claimed. Of the third class of claimants, consisting of loyalists who had enjoyed places and exercised professions in America, which, by adhering to this country, they had lost or been forced to abandon, he proposed to put upon half pay those whose incomes amounted to no more than £400 per annum, and to grant forty per cent. upon any excess of income above £400 per annum, unless the income exceeded £1500 per annum, in which case thirty per cent. only was to be allowed upon the excess of income above £400 per annum. Lastly, it was proposed to pay the full amount of their claims to persons connected with West Florida, because, by the treaty of peace, that country had been ceded by Britain to a foreign power. Mr Pitt concluded by moving, that, in order to satisfy these claims, £1,228,239 should be voted to the several American claimants, and £1,113,952 14s. 3d. to the Florida claimants; and the motion was unanimously agreed to. The liberality with which the British nation acted upon this occasion merits high approbation, as an instance of the wisest policy, from its tendency, in future discontents or insurrections in the subordinate parts of the empire, to secure the attachment of persons of property to the cause of the mother country. As the claims of the American loyalists were stated by themselves, and not scrutinized with extreme severity, it was generally understood that these persons were in very few instances ultimate losers by the part which they had taken; a circumstance of which the public did not disapprove.

The trade carried on by Great Britain and other European nations upon the coast of Africa, for the purchase of negro slaves to be employed in the cultivation of the West India islands, and certain parts of the continent of America, does not appear to have been at this time considered with that general attention which a practice so abhorrent in its nature to the mild principles of modern policy and manners might have been expected to excite. This may probably have been owing, partly to the distance of the object, which tended both to conceal the sufferings, and to lessen the sympathy of the public for the unfortunate sufferers; and partly to the connivance of politicians, unwilling to examine too severely into the nature of the means by which distant colonies were enabled to pour luxury and wealth into the bosom of the mother country. The first public attempt made to put a stop to this traffic was by the Quakers of the southern provinces of America, who, soon after the establishment of their independence, not only presented a strong and pathetic address to their several legislative assemblies on this subject, but actually proceeded in many instances to emancipate the slaves in their own possession. In Great Britain the same sect appears also to have taken the lead; and, after the example of their American brethren, they presented, in 1787, a petition to the parliament of this kingdom. The cause soon afterwards became extremely popular, and was taken up with great zeal and earnestness by various descriptions of people. A society was formed; a considerable sum of money was subscribed for the purpose of collecting infor-

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During this session the affairs of India still continued to occupy the attention of the legislature and of the public. Under the apprehension of a rupture with France on account of the affairs of Holland, government had resolved to send out four additional regiments to India, on board the Company's ships, for the protection of our possessions in that quarter; and the proposal had been received with approbation by the court of directors; but even after the danger was past, government still adhered to their resolution of sending out these regiments, with a view to form a permanent establishment of king's troops in that quarter of the world. Hence a question arose with the court of directors of the East India Company, about the expense of sending out, and afterwards paying, these troops. By an act passed in the year 1781, the Company were declared liable for the expense attending such troops only as should be sent out upon their own requisition. But administration now contended, that the act brought forward by Mr Pitt in 1784, which gave to the board of control a power of counteracting the orders of the court of directors, and of directing the application of the Company's revenues, ought to be understood as authorizing that board to carry into effect the proposed measure. The court of directors, however, having obtained the opinion of some eminent lawyers in their favour, refused to take the troops on board the ships which were about to sail for India; and for this reason, on the 25th of February, Mr Pitt proposed, in the House of Commons, that all difficulties should be removed by a declaratory act, stating the intention of the legislature, in the act of 1784, to have been conformable to the construction put upon it by the board of control. This mode of proceeding was strongly opposed, upon the grounds that the claims of government upon the Company ought to be tried in a court of law, instead of being brought be-

Reign of George III. fore the House of Commons, where administration possessed an undue influence; that the measure was in itself ill judged, as it would have been more economical to permit the Company to raise four regiments, which would have enabled them to provide for many of their own officers, who were living in India in very distressed situations, in consequence of having been reduced at the peace; and that the mode of sending out recruits to complete the king's regiments at that time in India might have been adopted with more advantage to the Company, as it would have enabled them to avoid the additional burden of all the officers of four new regiments. But the point on which the declaratory act was chiefly resisted referred to its tendency to deprive the East India Company of the management of its own affairs, and of the patronage arising from its revenues, which, at the time when Mr Pitt's bill was passed, had never been understood to be the intention of the legislature or of government. Mr Pulteney, and some other members who usually voted with Mr Pitt, now declared that they supported his bill in 1784 only because it appeared to preserve uninjured the rights of the East India Company; and that the construction attempted to be put upon it in the declaratory act rendered it fully as obnoxious as the celebrated bill rejected by the Lords in 1783; with this difference only, that what the one had for its professed object only and without disguise, the other was attempting to effect by fraud and dissimulation. Other members also expressed similar sentiments, which excited great triumph on the part of Mr Fox and his friends, who loudly congratulated themselves upon the complete justification which his India bill had now obtained, by the tacit confession of his adversaries themselves. In support of the declaratory act, Mr Pitt contended, that the express object of the institution of the board of control was to take the entire management of the territorial possessions and the political government of India out of the hands of the Company, leaving them only the direction of their commercial concerns; that the board of control was in future to be responsible to the public for the prosperity and safety of our Indian possessions, and was therefore to be invested with the powers necessary for the due discharge of its important duties; and that administration in 1784 had not held any other language with regard to its nature, or the authority which it was to possess. On the 5th of March the bill was passed by a considerable majority. In the House of Lords the Marquis of Lansdown opposed it on nearly the same grounds as had been urged in the Commons, but with as little success. And upon the whole, if the augmentation of the power of the crown was at this period a misfortune, it was a misfortune which the conquest of India appears to have rendered inevitable. The East India Company, by whom the conquest had been made, was admitted to have shown itself unfit to govern that great country. The management of it, therefore, naturally devolved upon the executive government, unless the constitution itself was to be endangered, by intrusting the exercise of new and unusual powers to some branch of the legislature; or, unless a new kind of authority or power was to be created, like that attempted by Mr Fox's India bill, the result of which, as a political experiment upon the constitution, or mode of administering part of the affairs of the empire, was necessarily hazardous, because heretofore entirely without example in our history.

The attention of the nation still continued to be occupied in no small degree by the prosecution of Mr Hastings. The members of the committee which during the preceding session had prepared the articles of impeachment, were now appointed to act as managers for the House of Commons in conducting the trial; and on the

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The managers of the impeachment next proposed that they should come to a conclusion on both sides, upon each article separately before they opened another; but the counsel for Mr Hastings insisted that the House of Commons ought first to proceed to a conclusion upon the whole charges, before any part of the defence was demanded; and the House of Lords having deliberated on the point, decided it in their favour. The managers for the Commons acquiesced in the decision, and entered upon the particular charges, two of which employed the House of Lords during the remainder of the session.

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During the interval which followed the prorogation of parliament, the only occurrence worthy of notice arose out of the contents of the northern nations. At this period the relative condition of the European powers had undergone a very important change. During a century and a half the power of the monarchy of France had been formidable to all Europe; and, at different periods, the most extensive combinations had been found necessary to resist its ambition. But since the termination of the American war, that monarchy had evidently lost much of its importance among the neighbouring nations. Its influence over Holland had ever been one of its favourite objects of pursuit; but during the preceding year it had suffered that influence to be overturned without a struggle; and, as far as regarded any external effort, France appeared at this time to have fallen into a state of complete imbecility. The powers whose ambition had now become dangerous to the repose of Europe, were Austria and Russia. The latter, in particular, proved extremely restless and enterprising. The empress Catherine II. had contrived to engage in her views the emperor Joseph II. and had prevailed with him to engage in a sanguinary contest on the eastern frontiers of Europe, with a view to the partition of the provinces of Turkey; whilst France, the ancient ally of that power, was unable to afford it any countenance or aid.

In the mean time Catherine held in a state of dependence approaching to subjection the kingdoms of Sweden and Denmark. After the reign of Charles XII. whose

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In the month of July the king of Sweden commenced offensive operations on the side of Finland. But the discontent which had been fostered by Russia among the Swedish nobles soon broke out; several officers declared that the king had no right to make war without the consent of the states of the kingdom; and the troops refused to advance. Whilst the king was in this embarrassed situation, a Danish army suddenly advanced against Sweden under Prince Charles of Hesse-Cassel, accompanied by the prince of Denmark as a volunteer; and to give this force the appearance of an auxiliary army, the prince of Hesse had been created a field-marshal in the Russian service. The affairs of Sweden were now all but desperate. During the king's absence the senate of Stockholm had assumed extraordinary powers, and summoned a meeting of the states of the kingdom; but Gustavus unexpectedly arrived at Stockholm from Finland, put an end to their proceedings, instantly sent off the whole regular troops from the capital, and having assembled the citizens, declared that he intrusted to their fidelity the defence of his capital, and the protection of the queen and the royal family. His audience were seized with a military enthusiasm; the citizens armed and embodied themselves, and performed the whole duty of the garrison; while such of the officers as had returned from the army in Finland were insulted as traitors, and compelled to conceal themselves. The

king next hastened to the province of Dalecarlia, inhabited by a fierce and ignorant but honest people, celebrated for the share which they had in the revolution by which Gustavus Vasa rescued his country from the despotism and cruelty of Denmark, which had massacred the citizens of Stockholm, and almost exterminated the nobility of the kingdom; and the loyalty of these people being kindled to enthusiasm by this visit of the king to their mines and forests, four thousand of them instantly came forth as volunteers. In the mean time the Danish army, proceeding along the sea coast, which had been left undefended, took a body of Swedes prisoners, and advanced towards Gottenburg, which being mostly built of timber, was liable to instant destruction by bombardment. The place had actually been summoned, when the king, by unusual personal exertion, passed at the critical period unnoticed through the enemy's parties, and entered the city. His presence had the effect of restoring the confidence of the inhabitants, who resolved to encounter every hazard in defence of the city; but the place was thus saved only for a moment, and its situation, as well as that of the king himself, was still extremely perilous. On this occasion, however, the city, the king, and perhaps the monarchy of Sweden, owed their safety to the interference of a British subject, Mr Hugh Elliot, the British envoy at Copenhagen. From the first notice of hostilities, this gentleman, concerning the interests of his country and of Europe, passed over into Sweden, and offered his mediation to the king, at the same time that he threatened the Danes with an immediate invasion by a Prussian army, supported by a British and Dutch fleet. The Danish commander became intimidated, and delayed his threatened hostilities; a Prussian envoy soon arrived, and confirmed all the menaces of Mr Elliot; and the consequence was, that after much negotiation, a suspension of hostilities was concluded, and in the month of November the Danish troops evacuated the territory of Sweden.

At the close of autumn this year a domestic event of a singular nature, and new in the British history, occurred. The health of the sovereign had suffered, not from freedom of indulgence and excess of luxury, but from too severe a regimen, too laborious exercise, too rigid abstemiousness, and too short intervals of rest. As a remedy for the symptoms which manifested themselves, he was advised to resort to the medicinal waters of Cheltenham, and accordingly repaired thither immediately after the prorogation of parliament, and did not return to the metropolis till the 18th of August. But no material benefit had resulted from this excursion. His health continued in a precarious state; and on the 22d of October symptoms were observed by one of the royal physicians, of that alienation of mind which was afterwards the occasion of so many important and interesting transactions. For some time it was thought proper to observe the utmost secrecy respecting the nature of the king's indisposition; and the retreat of the sovereign at Windsor was favourable for this purpose. For several days an opinion was entertained that his indisposition arose from fever, and that it had attained so alarming a height as to threaten speedy dissolution; but the real nature of the malady could not long be suppressed. By the law and practice of the English constitution, almost every species of public business is, in some manner, connected with the exercise of the royal prerogative. The administration of the general government, in particular, was by this event virtually suspended; and notwithstanding the critical situation of Europe, and the very active share which we had taken in its concerns, it was now deemed impracticable to return any sort of answer to the dispatches of foreign courts, or even to those of our own ambassadors. In this situation the most natu-

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ral expedient was to suffer the two houses of parliament, which stood prorogued to the 20th of November, to assemble at that time, and either to adjourn for a short interval, or proceed immediately to discuss the measures which it would be proper to adopt at such a juncture. Circular letters were accordingly addressed to the members of the legislature on the 14th, signifying that the indisposition of the sovereign rendered it doubtful whether there would be a possibility of receiving his commands for the further prorogation of parliament; that in such a case the two houses must of necessity assemble; and that a numerous attendance of the members was extremely desirable.

When parliament assembled, the lord chancellor observed in the House of Lords, that the reason of their being thus unusually called together without the ordinary notice, for the dispatch of business, arose from the severity of the king's indisposition, which had rendered it impossible for him to approach the royal person in order to receive his commands. Lord Camden remarked, that the customary practice of giving forty days' notice previous to the meeting of parliament, was not in his opinion absolutely necessary; that there was an express act of parliament, which limited the notice, in case of treason or rebellion, to fourteen days; that he would therefore recommend an adjournment for that term; and that the chancellor should, by order of the house, address an official letter to every individual peer. In the House of Commons Mr Pitt stated that every authority had been consulted respecting the present singular situation of affairs; that none pointed out either the possibility of directing a new prorogation, or of enabling ministers to open the session of parliament in any regular way; that, under these circumstances, it would be improper for the house to proceed to the discussion of any public business; and that it was absolutely necessary to adjourn. He therefore recommended the interval of a fortnight, when, if the king's illness should unhappily continue, it would be indispensably incumbent upon them to enter upon the immediate consideration of the state of public affairs; and he further moved a call of the house for the 4th of December, and that the speaker should be directed to send circular letters, requiring the attendance of every member on that day.

The tenor of the precedents afforded by the history of England was regarded upon the whole as in favour of a regency, under which the whole, or a considerable part of the power of the state, should be confided to the next heir to the crown, or to the adult of the royal family most nearly related to the king; and what rendered this consideration the more material upon the present occasion was, that the Prince of Wales was understood to entertain an avowed partiality for the political connection which had lately been instrumental in obtaining for him the discharge of his debts and an increase of his annual income, as well as some personal resentment against the ministers now in possession of office. Accordingly, soon after the indisposition of the king had been ascertained, the prince dispatched an express to Mr Fox, who was at that time in Italy, requesting his immediate presence to assist him in forming an administration. The ministers were also aware of the intentions of the Prince of Wales, and wished, if possible, to retain possession of office. Besides, as the duration of the king's illness was necessarily uncertain, and he might speedily be able to resume the reins of government, it was obviously their interest to procrastinate as long as possible; and they were enabled to do so in consequence of the tranquil state of the nation, which rendered the exercise of the executive power of less immediate necessity than in times of war or public alarm. The effect of mere reputation in supporting any political measure was remarkably illustrated on this occasion. Mr Pitt and

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his colleagues in office were in possession of the public favour in a degree in which perhaps no ministers had ever before enjoyed it for so long a period of time. To Mr Fox and his associates still attached part of the odium which the coalition and the Indian bill had originally excited. The Prince of Wales himself was even less popular. The sobriety of his father's life formed a contrast to his youthful indiscretions; and the rumour of his marriage with Mrs Fitzherbert was still propagated, and met with credit. In this state of affairs the king's ministers, who had ceased to be any thing more than ministers by courtesy, had every advantage in their project of delaying as long as possible the relinquishment of their official situations, by placing the exercise of the royal authority in new hands. Mr Pitt likewise conducted himself with great dexterity in contriving subjects of discussion in the House of Commons; whilst his antagonists, in contending against him for victory upon speculative political questions, seem not to have been aware that they were in fact fighting his battle, by delaying the period of their own entrance into power.

Upon the re-assembling of parliament on the 4th of December, a report of the privy council, containing an examination of the royal physicians, was presented to the two houses by Lord Camden and Mr Pitt; and it was suggested, that when the delicacy of the subject and the dignity of the person in question were considered, parliament would probably perceive the propriety of acting upon this report, rather than of demanding that more direct and ample information to which, in strictness, they were entitled. This suggestion seemed reasonable, as it could scarcely be supposed that the ministers of the crown would act so directly in opposition to their own interests, as falsely to represent their master as incapacitated by mental disease for the exercise of his royal functions. Mr Fox, Mr Burke, and others, however, would not take any assurance upon this point, but insisted on the solemnity of an inquiry by a committee of the two houses. This was accordingly agreed to, and the report of the committee was laid upon the table of the House of Commons on the 10th, when a further proposition was moved by Mr Pitt for the appointment of a committee to examine precedents respecting those cases in which the personal exercise of the royal authority had been prevented or interrupted by infancy, sickness, infirmity, or any other cause. Mr Fox observed, that though he had no objection to the appointment of a committee for the purpose proposed, yet as it was notorious that no precedent existed which could be applied to the present case, he took the opportunity of stating as a general principle, that the king being at present incapable of holding the executive government, the Prince of Wales had as clear and express a right to assume the reins and exercise the power of sovereignty during the continuance of the present incapacity, as if his father were actually dead; but he added, that though the prince's right was perfect and entire, the two houses of parliament, as the organs of the nation, were alone qualified to pronounce when he ought to take possession of his right. In reply to this observation, Mr Pitt stated, that for any man to assert such a right in the Prince of Wales, otherwise than as it was voluntarily conferred upon him by the two houses of parliament, was little less than treason against the constitution; and that, except by their election, he had no more right, in point of principle, to assume the government, than any other subject in England.

On the following day the opinion which had been stated by Mr Fox was attacked in the House of Lords by Lord Camden, and defended by Lord Loughborough and Lord Stormont. Ministers had now got an abstract question as a subject of debate, and they resolved not to lose sight of it, especially as their side of the question was likely to be

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most popular, from being founded on an assertion of the powers of parliament in opposition to hereditary right. Accordingly, when the subject was next mentioned, Mr Pitt said, that the question which had been started respecting the rights of parliament was of much greater magnitude and importance than those which related to the present exigency; and that it was impossible to dismiss the question of right without its being fully discussed and decided. And on the 16th of December, in a committee upon the state of the nation, he entered at large into the subject, and endeavoured to prove by ancient precedents that the powers vested in a regent had always been inferior to those of the king, and that parliament had interfered in cases of royal infancy in appointing councils of regency, nay even a single regent or protector; but he at the same time admitted that it would be expedient to intrust the government to the Prince of Wales, whatever limitations it might be thought necessary to impose on him. Mr Fox, on the contrary, contended that his doctrine was supported by the very nature of a hereditary monarchy. Upon Mr Pitt's principles, said he, if a man were questioned whether the monarchy is hereditary or not, the answer must be, I cannot tell; ask his majesty's physicians. When the king of England is in health the monarchy is hereditary, but when he is ill and incapable of exercising the sovereign authority, it is then elective. He ridiculed the absurdity of Mr Pitt's assertion, that the Prince of Wales had no more right than any subject of the realm, while he at the same time confessed that parliament was not at liberty to think of any other regent. But Mr Pitt's motion on the question of right was carried by a considerable majority.

On the 22d of December Mr Pitt proposed in the House of Commons, a resolution, the object of which was to declare it necessary, for the purpose of supplying the present deficiency, and maintaining entire the constitutional authority of the king, that the two houses should determine on the means by which the royal assent might be given to the bill which they might adopt for constituting a regency. The object of this proposition was obvious. Administration had resolved not to confide the regency to the Prince of Wales except under certain restrictions; but without the royal assent, an act of parliament, fixing these restrictions, could not be passed. They wished, therefore, to devise a solemnity which, in this case, might be held as equivalent to the royal assent; and Mr Pitt proposed, that the great seal should be affixed by the lord chancellor to the act of parliament, and that the should be held as equivalent to the royal assent. Mr Fox, on the contrary, urged an immediate address to the Prince of Wales, requesting him to take upon himself the regency; and upon the point long debates occurred in both houses of parliament, in which administration continued to be supported by the majority.

In the meanwhile Mr Pitt, in the name of the rest of the cabinet, explained to the Prince of Wales, in a letter, the restrictions which were meant to be inserted in the regency bill. These were, that the care of the king's person, and the disposal of his household, should be committed to the queen; and that the power to be exercised by the prince should not extend to the personal property of his father, nor to the granting of any office, reversion, or pension, except where the law absolutely required it, as in the case of the judges, for any other term than during the king's pleasure, nor to the conferring of any peerage, unless upon such persons of the royal issue as should have attained the age of twenty-one years. It was added, that these ideas were founded upon the supposition that the royal malady would only be temporary, and might be of short duration; that it was difficult to fix at present the precise period for which these provisions ought to endure; but that it would

hereafter be open to the wisdom of parliament to reconsider them whenever circumstances might appear to render it eligible. In his answer, which was dated on the second of January 1789, the prince declared, that it was with deep regret he perceived, in the propositions of administration, a project for introducing weakness, disorder, and insecurity, into every branch of public business; for dividing the royal family from each other; for separating the court from the state, and depriving government of its natural and accustomed support; for disconnecting the authority to command service from the power of animating it by reward; and for allotting to him all the invidious duties of the kingly station, without the means of softening them to the public by any one act of grace, favour, or benignity. He stated it as a principle of the British constitution, that the powers and prerogatives of the crown were held in trust for the benefit of the people, and were sacred as conducing to preserve that balance of the constitution which formed the best security for the liberty of the subject; and he objected to making trial in his person, of an experiment to ascertain with how small a portion of kingly power the executive government of the country could be conducted. He stated his conviction, that no event could be more repugnant to the feelings of his royal father on his recovery, than to know that the government of his son and representative had exhibited the sovereign power in a state of degradation and diminished energy, injurious in its practice to the prosperity of the people, and mischievous in its precedent to the security of the monarch and the rights of his family; but he nevertheless declared himself resolved to undertake, under every disadvantage, the office of regent, in order to avoid the evils which might arise from his following a different line of conduct.

The most singular part of this project for the government of the kingdom appears to have been that for confiding to the queen the power of removing, nominating, and appointing the officers of the royal household; assisted by a permanent council, to be selected by parliament, and to consist, in some measure, of the members of administration. The annual income of the royal household was computed at £300,000, and the number of officers of which it consisted amounted to four hundred; an influence which would certainly have been sufficiently formidable to a government in other respects restricted and limited. The lords of the bed-chamber had been made use of to defeat Mr Fox's India bill, and might, under a separate establishment, have proved embarrassing to the existing government. It is obvious, however, that, on this occasion, administration were encouraged in the pursuit of the plan which they had formed for restricting the prince's power, by the addresses presented to them from various parts of the kingdom, expressive of gratitude for the assertion by the House of Commons of their right of providing for the present deficiency.

On the 16th of January Mr Pitt proposed his regency bill, resting it, in some measure, upon the decisive opinion of Dr Willis, who expressed great hopes of the king's recovery; and after long debates, the limitations were sanctioned by a considerable majority. In the House of Lords similar debates occurred, but there also administration proved victorious. On the 31st of January Lord Camden moved in the House of Lords, that the lord chancellor should be directed, by authority of the two houses of parliament, to issue a commission in the name of the sovereign, for the purpose of immediately opening the session of parliament; and this resolution having been carried in both houses, the session was opened in the proposed form on the 3d of February. Though the principles of the regency bill had been previously discussed, yet its various clauses gave rise to new divisions, in which administration still maintained

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their superiority. The bill passed the House of Commons on the 12th of February, and was presented on the following day to the House of Lords, where it was discussed on the 17th and 18th, and a few unimportant amendments introduced into it.

But here the whole of these proceedings terminated. On the 13th of February, the king having been declared by his physicians to be in a state of progressive amendment, an adjournment of the House of Lords was therefore proposed on the 19th. On the 25th his majesty was declared by his physicians free from complaint; and on the 10th of March the lord chancellor, by the king's authority, addressed both houses of parliament in a speech, after which the ordinary business of the session commenced.

In the meanwhile the administration of Mr Pitt had been less fortunate in Ireland than in this country. The unexampled popularity which reconciled the people of Great Britain to all his measures, and the odium and suspicion which had fallen upon his opponents, had not hitherto been communicated to the neighbouring island. The prospect, therefore, of his departure from office excited little regret in that country, and its parliament made haste to worship what they accounted the rising sun. It had stood adjourned, previous to the royal incapacity, till the 20th January 1789; and the Marquis of Buckingham, then lord-lieutenant, with consent of the privy council of Ireland, ventured to defer its meeting till the 5th of February. On the 11th of that month, two motions were offered to the consideration of the House of Commons, the one by Mr Grattan, the member most distinguished for his talents; and the other by Mr Conolly, the richest of the Irish commoners. By the first the royal incapacity was declared; and by the second it was proposed to present an address to the Prince of Wales, requesting him to take upon himself the government, with its various powers, jurisdictions, and prerogatives. After a long debate, the propositions of Mr Grattan and Mr Conolly were carried by a large majority; and on the following day an address to the Prince of Wales was also voted, and sent to the House of Lords, where it was adopted by a great majority. On the 19th of February the address was carried to the lord-lieutenant, who, however, refused to transmit it to England; upon which the two houses appointed six commissioners to present the address immediately to the prince: but these measures had scarcely been carried through parliament when the king's recovery rendered them ineffectual, and the consequence was, that the majority of the Irish parliament, who were far from intending to engage in a contest with the British government, found themselves in an awkward situation.

The subject of the slave-trade, which had been brought under the consideration of parliament during the preceding session, was resumed upon the 12th of May. In the interval, petitions against the abolition of the traffic had been presented by persons in London, Liverpool, Bristol, and other places interested in the trade. Meanwhile, the report of the committee of the privy council, of which Mr Pitt had previously given notice, was presented to the House of Commons; and the enemies of the trade had been extremely active in endeavouring to excite the indignation of the public against this odious and inhuman traffic. Innumerable pamphlets were distributed, either gratuitously or at a low price, giving an account of the calamities endured by the unhappy natives of Africa; the wars in which petty princes were tempted to engage, with a view to sell their prisoners to European traders, were fully explained; the wretched manner in which these slaves were transported to the West India colonies, fettered and crowded together so as to occasion the destruction of multitudes by disease, was represented by prints, distributed along

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with the popular publications upon the subject; and, lastly, instances were given of the cruelty of the masters in the West Indies, tending to render the white inhabitants extremely odious. By these means the public were led to interest themselves in procuring, if not an abolition of the state of slavery, at least a complete prohibition of the importation of additional slaves from Africa; and to this last object the attention of the legislature was now confined. The business was opened by Mr Wilberforce, who stated the effects of the trade upon Africa; noticed the mode of transportation, which he very fully described; adverted to the diseases contracted on ship-board, with the astringents and washes employed to hide the wounds of the miserable sufferers; descanted on the wickedness of the trade, which he felt to be so enormous and irredeemable, that he could stop at nothing short of abolition; asserted that the number of negroes in the West Indies might be kept up without the introduction of recruits from Africa; and moved twelve propositions, stating the number of slaves annually carried from Africa, imported into the British West Indies, and entered in the custom-house accounts; the consequences produced upon the inhabitants of Africa; the injury sustained by the British seamen; the fatal circumstances which attended the transportation of the slaves; the causes of the mortality of the negroes, and a calculation of the relative increase of population in Jamaica and Barbadoes; together with a declaration that no considerable or permanent inconvenience would result from discontinuing further importation. Mr Pitt supported that side of the question which had received the sanction of popular approbation; declaring himself satisfied that no argument, compatible with any idea of justice, could be assigned for the continuation of the slave-trade; and expressing a hope, that while Great Britain took the lead of other countries in a matter of so great magnitude, foreign nations would be inclined to share the honour, and contented to unite with us in so excellent a work. Mr Fox highly approved of what had fallen from Mr Pitt, and declared that he had considered the trade in human flesh as so scandalous, that it was in the last degree infamous to suffer it to be openly carried on by the authority of the government of any country. Mr Burke was of opinion that, whatever might be the present situation of Africa, it could never be meliorated under the present system; that while we continued to purchase the natives, they must forever remain in a state of savage barbarity; that it was impossible to civilize a slave; and that there was no country situated like Africa into which the shadow of improvement had ever been introduced. On the other hand, Mr Wilberforce's propositions met with considerable opposition. Mr Savage and Mr Newnham, on the part of the city of London, asserted, that the measure, if carried into effect, would render the metropolis bankrupt; Mr Dempster thought that Mr Wilberforce's first proposal ought to be, to make good out of the public purse the losses which individuals would sustain from the abolition of the trade; Lord Penrhyn asserted, that as there were mortgages in the West India islands to the amount of seventy millions sterling, Mr Wilberforce's project would subject the country in the repayment of that sum; Mr Henniker opposed the abolition, on account of the alleged depravity of the Africans, which rendered them incapable of civilization; and Lord Maitland, Mr Marsham, Mr Hussey, Mr Rolle, Mr Drake, and Mr Alderman Watson, each alleged something intended to pass as a reason for entertaining similar views. Lastly, the matter ended in the renewal of Sir William Dolben's act to regulate, for a limited time, the mode of conveying slaves in British vessels from the coast of Africa.

The annual business of the budget was not brought for-

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The expense incurred by the recent armament, the allowance to the American loyalists, and other circumstances, rendered it necessary to have recourse to a loan of one million, to defray the interest of which additional taxes were imposed upon newspapers, advertisements, cards, and dice, probates of wills, legacies to collateral relations, and carriages and horses. And as one of Mr Pitt's methods of extending the revenue consisted in endeavouring to suppress smuggling, and as he had formerly transferred the management of the duty on wine from the customs to the excise, he now pursued the same course in regard to the article tobacco. The subject was opened in the House of Commons on the 16th of June, when it was observed that tobacco had come to be considered as the staple of the smuggler, in the same manner as tea, wine, and spirits, had formerly been. The quantity of tobacco consumed in the kingdom had been found to bear a tolerably near proportion to the quantity of tea; and at least one half of this quantity was the exclusive commodity of the smuggler. The consumption amounted to fourteen millions of pounds; and the loss to the revenue upon the half of this consumption exceeded three hundred thousand pounds per annum. Under these circumstances, Mr Pitt thought it necessary to have recourse to the system of excise, by which the stock of the dealer was taxed, instead of the duty being collected on importation. A bill was accordingly introduced for effecting the transference proposed by the minister, and after a good deal of discussion, passed by a large majority.

Mr Fox having annually brought forward a motion for the repeal of the shop-tax, which had proved extremely unpopular in the capital, Mr Pitt at length consented that it should be abolished. Mr Beaufoy again introduced a motion for the repeal of the corporation and test acts, which was supported by Mr Fox, opposed by Lord North and Mr Pitt, and rejected by a narrow majority. A bill introduced into the House of Lords by Earl Stanhope, for relieving members of the church of England from various penalties and disabilities under which they laboured, and for extending freedom in matters of religion to persons of all denominations, Catholics excepted, was equally unsuccessful. The laws intended to repeal were those which imposed penalties upon persons who did not frequent the established worship; prohibiting men from speaking or writing in derogation of the doctrine of the book of common prayer; enjoining the eating of fish on certain days; authorizing the imprisonment of persons excommunicated; prohibiting the exportation of women; and declaring all persons who went to court, without having previously made a certain declaration, to be in the eye of the law Popish recusant convicts. But these absurd and obsolete enactments were stoutly defended by the episcopal bench; and the bill was ultimately rejected.

On the first of July the East India Company petitioned the House of Commons for permission to add a sum of one million to their capital; and the request was granted with little difficulty. On the same day Mr Dundas, as president of the board of control, brought forward a state-

ment of the revenues of India, which, after deducting every article of expenditure in that country, he calculated at L.1,830,000. During the present session, the trial of Mr Hastings still proceeded before the House of Lords. The third charge brought forward, respecting presents received by him during his government of Bengal, was opened by Mr Burke, who, in the course of his speech, alluded to the trial and execution of Nundcomar, and asserted that Mr Hastings had murdered that man by the hands of Sir Elijah Impey. But as the transaction respecting Nundcomar formed no specific part of the charges which had been preferred against Mr Hastings by the House of Commons, and as the question, in as far as Sir Elijah was implicated, had been examined and rejected during the preceding session, Mr Hastings presented a petition to the house, in which he entreated them, either to cause the additional allegations urged against him to be brought forward, and prosecuted in specific articles, or to afford him such other redress as they might judge suitable and proper. Mr Pitt supported the petition, upon the ground that the murder of Nundcomar formed no part of the crime of peculation, and every rule of evidence was against its being alleged; that it had been charged in order to discredit the character of the accused, although it was a rule in the courts of law that no fact could be given in evidence to discredit even a witness; that if the murder of Nundcomar was not admissible as evidence, it could only be urged as matter of aggravation, which it was impossible to allow; and that the common sense of the house, and of all mankind, would not permit the crime of murder to be urged as an aggravation of the crime of peculation. Mr Fox, on the contrary, cited the case of a captain of a ship, against whom murder was charged in having thrown his cargo of slaves overboard, in order to prove that he had by sinister means endeavoured to defraud the underwriters of the amount of the insurance; and maintained that the present case exactly corresponded to this. It was impossible to describe the corrupt transactions of Mr Hastings without alluding to the crimes which had accompanied them, or to relate the crimes without mentioning the names of the persons by whom they had been committed. A resolution, however, was moved and carried, by which it was declared, that no authority had been given by the House of Commons for making any allegation against Mr Hastings respecting the death of Nundcomar, and that the words of Mr Burke, complained of in the petition, ought not to have been spoken.

The session of parliament was terminated on the 11th of August, by a speech from the lord chancellor in the name of the king. The summer passed away without producing any memorable event, and parliament assembled again on the 1st of January 1790, when they were met by the king in person, who, in the speech from the throne, observed that he continued to receive assurances of a pacific nature from the different powers in Europe, and at the same time congratulated the nation on the happiness it enjoyed, from the increasing advantages of peace.

CHAP. XV.

REIGN OF GEORGE III.—FRENCH REVOLUTION.

Origin of the French Revolution.—Allusions thereto in the House of Commons.—Approved of, in the first instance, by Mr Pitt.—Hostility of Mr Burke.—Revolution defended by Mr Fox and Mr Sheridan.—Conduct of Mr Pitt.—Motion for repeal of the Corporation and Test Acts.—Mr Flood's motion for a Reform in Parliament.—Affair of Nootka Sound.—Disturbances at the Austrian Netherlands.—New Parliament.—Schism amongst the members of Opposition.—Burke and Paine on the French Revolution.—Desertion of the Opposition by Mr Burke.—Slave-

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trade and Sierra Leone Company.—Dispute about Ocrakow.—General state of Europe.—Catholic Relief Bill.—War in India.—Early popularity of the French Revolution.—Riots at Birmingham.—State of Europe.—Project for the partition of Poland and France.—Treaty of Pilitz.—Parliamentary proceedings.—Project for the gradual abolition of the Slave-trade.—Scottish Burgh Reform.—War in India.—Siege of Seringapatam.—Treaty of Peace with Tippecoo.—Causes of the impending changes in Europe.—Royal Family of France.—Defects of the new French Constitution.—Society of Friends of the People.—Debate on Mr Grey's notice of a motion for Reform in Parliament.—Paine's Rights of Man.—Proclamation against Seditious Publications.—Its effects.—France menaced with invasion.—Russians invade Poland.—Duke of Brunswick's Manifesto.—Its effects.—The Prussians enter France.—Defeated at Valmy.—Retreat.—Battle of Jemmapes.—Proceedings of the French Government.—Fervent in Britain.—Political Associations.—Friends of the People.—Constitutional and Corresponding Societies.—Meeting of Parliament.—Speech from the Throne.—Debate on the Address.—Desertion from the ranks of Opposition.—Mr Fox's motion to treat with France.—The Alien Bill.—Correspondence between Lord Grenville and Mr. Chauvelin.—The King's message announcing War.—Attempt by the French to re-open negotiations.—Declaration of War.

During the preceding summer the eventful career of the French revolution had commenced. The extreme weakness into which the government of France had fallen, owing to the pressure of the public debts, and the embarrassment of the finances, had induced the king to call together the states general of the kingdom, which soon assumed the title of the national assembly. Their debates, which were held in public, diffused a love of innovation, and a desire to reform their ancient government, and establish a free constitution. The court became alarmed by the violence of their proceedings, and attempted to set bounds to their projects; but the populace of the capital rose in arms, and the military refused to act against them. Meanwhile the national assembly proceeded daily in the discussion of new plans of change. They seized the ecclesiastical property and tithes, resolving to limit the clergy for the future to fixed salaries; they put an end to the monastic institutions; they abolished the whole order of nobility, and limited the power of the crown. These, and other proceedings, which will be stated in their proper place, excited much attention in Britain; and accordingly allusions to them became not unfrequent in parliament during the present session; indeed general questions were debated with more animation, and excited a higher degree of interest, than they had for many years done.

The supplies for the navy and army, which were stated at the same amount as in the preceding session, produced some animadversions from Mr Marsham and Mr Pulteney, who alleged that, in the actual state of Europe, the military establishment of Britain might safely be reduced. Mr Fox observed, that if ever there was a moment in which he could be less jealous than at another of an increase of the standing army, the present was that moment. The example of a neighbouring nation had proved that the former imputations upon standing armies were entirely unfounded and calumnious; and it was now universally known throughout all Europe, that a man by becoming a soldier did not cease to be a citizen. He thought the new form which the government of France was about to assume, would render her a better neighbour than when her affairs were controlled by the intrigues of ambitious and interested statesmen. Mr Pitt acknowledged that the tumultuous situation of France afforded a prospect of tranquillity; but he thought that the opportunity ought to be seized to raise our army to such a state of respectability as would leave no hopes of future hostility. The present convulsions of France must sooner or later terminate in the re-establishment of order; but there was a probability, that while the fortunate arrangements of such a situation

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might render her more formidable, they would also convert her into a less restless neighbour. As an Englishman and as a man, he wished for the restoration of tranquillity in France, though that event appeared to him considerably distant. Whenever it arrived, and her inhabitants became truly free, they must be in possession of a freedom resulting from order and good government, and they would then stand forward as one of the most brilliant powers in Europe; nor could he regard with envious eyes an approximation towards those sentiments which were characteristic of every true British subject. But while Mr Pitt, who had commenced his public career as the champion of political reform, and still on important occasions represented himself as preserving his attachment to popular rights, was thus applauding the first revolutionary movements of the French, his friends considered themselves as at perfect liberty to give utterance to sentiments of a very different nature upon the subject. Viscount Valletort, who moved the address, expressed great compassion for the king of France, then almost a prisoner in his own palace, and for the families of distinction who had found it necessary to fly to foreign countries to avoid the unexampled barbarities which were committed with impunity at home; and Colonel Phipps declared that the praise bestowed by Mr Fox upon the conduct of the French military, was a poor compliment to the profession in general, and that, if he had wanted a subject for panegyric, he ought rather to have adverted to the conduct of the English army during the riots of 1780, when they were not led by false feelings to put themselves at the head of schemes leading to anarchy and cruelty.

On the 9th of February, when the vote of supply for the army came a second time under consideration, Mr Burke revived the subject of the French revolution. He declared himself, in decided terms, an enemy to the measures which had lately taken place in that country; and conceived that it would be the greatest of all calamities for Britain, if any set of men amongst us should represent the late transactions in France as fit objects of imitation. He, however, condemned the greatness of our military establishment, by reason of the weakness of France; and declared, that on looking over the geography of this part of the world, he saw a great gap, a vast blank, the space hitherto occupied by France, which had no longer any political existence. France had at different periods been as dangerous to us by her example as by her hostility. In the last age, we had been in danger of being entangled, by her example, in the net of a relentless despotism. Our present danger, from the example of a people whose character knew no medium, was that of being led, through an admiration of successful fraud and violence, to imitate the excesses of an irrational, unprincipled, proscript, confiscating, plundering, ferocious, bloody, and tyrannical democracy. They had a good political constitution the day their states general assembled in separate orders; but this they had destroyed. They had now no other system than a determination to destroy all order, subvert all arrangement, and reduce every description of men to one level. It was absurd to compare a proceeding like this to the revolution in England, which neither impaired the monarchy nor the church, and merely drove away a legal monarchy, who was attempting arbitrary power.

Mr Fox expressed great concern at differing in opinion from Mr Burke, for whom he avowed the highest reverence and esteem. He repeated his former opinion upon the subject of French affairs, but declared himself an enemy of all absolute forms of government, whether monarchical, aristocratical, or democratical. Mr Sheridan in more unequalled terms stated his disapprobation of Mr Burke's sentiments, expressed his surprise that any man

Reign of George III. who valued the British government should feel such abhorrence of the patriotic proceedings in France, and declared himself as ready as Mr Burke to detest the cruelties which had been committed. He complimented individually the Marquis de Lafayette, M. Bailly, and other French patriots, and expressed a hope that the despotism of France would never be restored; but observed that he ought not on that account to be considered as approving of a wanton persecution of the nobility, or an insult to royalty. Mr Burke answered Mr Sheridan with indignation, and denied that he was the advocate of despotism; but declared that Mr Sheridan had sacrificed his friendship for the applause of clubs and associations.

It is probable that Mr Pitt had now become aware of the difficulty of his situation with regard to the French revolution, which at this period was generally regarded with approbation in Britain, as an imitation of that spirit by which our ancestors had raised their country to a state of unexampled prosperity and happiness. Mr Pitt must already have known that the court regarded it in a very different light; and that, at no distant period, his ambition and his love of popularity might become incompatible. On the present occasion he undoubtedly saw with satisfaction a division likely to occur among those who had hitherto been his competitors for popularity; and with that dexterity in debate for which he appears to have been remarkable, he instantly endeavoured to widen the breach, and to attach to himself a man of so much intellectual power as Mr Burke, declaring that he agreed with the latter in almost every thing he had urged respecting the late commotions in France; that the sentiments Mr Burke had professed respecting the British constitution filled him with the sincerest satisfaction; and that the manner in which he had pledged himself to maintain it for ever inviolate, entitled him to the gratitude of his fellow-citizens and the admiration of posterity.

A new effort was made on the 2d of March to procure a repeal of the corporation and test acts. The dissenters had prevailed with Mr Fox to introduce the motion; but the clergy of the church of England, alarmed no doubt at the downfall of the ecclesiastical establishment in France, were anxious to diffuse a spirit of opposition to the intended attack. Mr Fox represented his whole argument as resting upon this principle, that no government has a right to annul upon the speculative opinions of its subjects, till these opinions produce a conduct subversive of the public tranquillity. It had been remarked that certain errors in religion tended to disturb the public tranquillity; but surely political errors must have this tendency in a much greater degree; yet such was the absurdity of the test laws, that a man who favoured arbitrary power in his sentiments, who considered the abolition of trial by jury as no violation of liberty, and the invasion of the freedom and law of parliament as no infraction of the constitution, might easily pave his way to the first situations in the state. Mr Pitt, as usual, supported the privileges of the established church; asserting, that though opinions might not be a warrantable ground for criminal accusation, yet they might afford a good reason for excluding particular individuals from the public service; and that to discover dangerous opinions a test might be highly expedient. Mr Burke was decidedly hostile to the measure. Mr Fox had stated the principles of toleration and persecution, but abstract principles he always disliked. Of all abstract principles, however, those of natural right, upon which dissenters rested as their stronghold, were the most idle and the most dangerous; they superseded society, and snapped asunder all those bonds which had for ages constituted the happiness of mankind. He adjured the house not to suffer the fatal incidents which had attend-

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ed the church of France, plundered and demolished in so disgraceful a manner, to abate their zeal in favour of our present happy and excellent establishment. Mr Fox in reply declared himself filled with grief and shame at the sentiment which Mr Burke had avowed, and asserted that all the principles he had stated had formerly received the sanction of his friend. He thought Mr Burke at present misled by his sensibility; his feelings had been shocked and irritated by a mistaken idea of the transactions in France, which were in reality nothing more than the calamities to which every country was unavoidably subject at the period of a revolution in its government, however beneficent and salutary. The proposed repeal was of course rejected on a division.

A few days afterwards Mr Flood brought forward a motion for the reform of the representation of the people in parliament, and proposed to add a hundred members to the House of Commons, to be elected by the resident householders in every county. Mr Windham opposed the motion, on the ground that the country had prospered under the representation as it stood, and because innovations had become extremely dangerous. Where, said he, is the man who would repair his house in the hurricane season? Mr Fox, on the contrary, declared himself as much persuaded as ever of the necessity of reform; but he thought the majority of the nation of a different opinion, and was therefore of opinion that the motion ought to be withdrawn. Mr Pitt considered the proposal as brought forward at an improper time, and said he wished to wait for a more seasonable opportunity, when he would certainly again submit his ideas upon the subject to the consideration of the house. Mr Flood accordingly withdrew his proposition.

On the 5th of May a message from the king informed both houses of parliament of certain acts of hostility committed by the Spaniards in the seizure of three British vessels which had attempted to establish a foreign trade between China and Nootka Sound, on the west coast of North America. The Spaniards conceiving the whole of that part of the American coast to be their property, were the first to give information of what they had done, and required that steps should be taken by the British government to prevent future encroachments upon that coast. The British navy was instantly augmented; and as a war with Spain, unassisted by France, could not prove very formidable, the public seemed to regard the approach of hostilities with little concern. But the determination evinced induced the Spaniards to come to an accommodation, and the dispute ended without an appeal to arms. During the present session little progress was made in the trial of Mr Hastings; and both parties accused each other as the authors of the delay that had taken place, while the subject began to be neglected or forgotten by the public. On the 10th of June the king put an end to the session by a speech from the throne, and this parliament was dissolved.

At this period the Austrian Netherlands were in a state of great agitation. The people of these provinces had long been governed by a feudal constitution, which vested important privileges in the clergy, the nobles, and certain classes of citizens, but more especially in the clergy. Joseph II. had invaded these privileges, seized upon the greater part of the property belonging to the monasteries, and driven from the country all who opposed his innovations. At length, about the end of the year 1789, the exiles having united on the frontiers, entered the country, and being joined by others, formed a considerable army, which rapidly overran the whole of Austrian Flanders; while the emperor, engaged in a war with the Turks, was prevented from sending any considerable force against

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them. In December, the states of Barbant having assembled, appointed an administration, at the head of which was Henry Vander Noot, a popular advocate; and in January 1790 were formed the outlines of a federal constitution, by which each of the Belgic provinces was to retain its peculiar constitution, whilst the general defence of the republic was to be intrusted to a congress. Meanwhile a considerable number of foreigners entered into the service of this new republic. But it soon appeared that the Belgic revolution would produce no lasting effects. The old aristocratical government, uncontrolled by the authority of a prince, was everywhere adopted; the power of the clergy was even increased; the very first step of the Belgian congress was a public declaration of religious intolerance; and the liberty of the press was prohibited, and state licensers appointed. The consequence was, that discontents speedily arose. But at this period the emperor Joseph died, and was succeeded by Leopold, archduke of Tuscany, who issued a proclamation, inviting the revolted provinces to return to their allegiance, and promising to restore their ancient political constitutions. And not trusting to peaceful measures alone, he sent an army against the insurgents, and at the end of the year the house of Austria had recovered its authority in the Netherlands.

The new parliament assembled on the 25th of November 1790. As no uncommon efforts had taken place at the preceding elections, nearly the same members as formerly were returned to the House of Commons; and Mr Addington was chosen speaker. On the following day the session was opened by a speech from the throne, in which his majesty informed parliament that the differences which had arisen with the court of Spain were brought to an amicable termination; that a separate peace had been concluded between Russia and Sweden; that, in conjunction with his allies, he had employed his mediation to negotiate a treaty between Russia and the Porte; that he was endeavouring to assist in putting an end to the dissensions in the Netherlands; but that the peace of India had been interrupted by a war with Tipoo Sultan, son of the late Hyder Ali. The speech concluded with recommending to parliament a particular attention to the state of the province of Canada. Various debates, of little importance in a historical point of view, occurred respecting the negotiations with Spain, the fur trade at Nootka Sound, and the expensive naval armament which had been fitted out to enforce the claims of Britain.

But in the beginning of March 1791 a bill was brought into parliament by Mr Pitt for regulating the government of the province of Canada in North America. This circumstance is chiefly worthy of notice on account of an altercation to which it gave rise between Mr Burke and Mr Fox. During the last session of the former parliament Mr Burke had declared his disapprobation of the French revolution, whilst Mr Sheridan and Mr Fox had expressed very opposite sentiments. Mr Pitt, as we have already seen, had dexterously laid hold of the opportunity to excite disunion among his antagonists, and had declared himself highly satisfied with Mr Burke's attachment to the British constitution. Mr Burke, on the other hand, had long been engaged in a career of fruitless opposition to the existing government; and during the king's illness, in the end of the year 1788, he had indicated such an indecent impatience when any expectation was expressed of his majesty's speedy recovery, as sufficiently demonstrated how eager he was to obtain possession of office. It is not improbable, therefore, that the approbation expressed by Mr Pitt, of his fears on account of the French revolution, suggested a decisive opposition to that great national movement, as a mode of ingratiating himself with administration; and that this idea, concurring with his former

sentiments, stimulated his eager mind to devote his principal attention to the subject. Accordingly, in November 1790, he published a treatise, in which he endeavoured to vilify the French national assembly, and to hold out the revolution as a subject of alarm and of detestation to all Europe. The style of copious and popular eloquence in which the book was written, together with the sentiments which it contained, produced a great impression; and replies to it were published by Dr Priestley and others; but that which proved most successful in gaining the attention of the public, was the production of Thomas Paine, who had formerly published in North America a pamphlet entitled *Common Sense*, which proved extremely prejudicial to the royal cause throughout the colonies. His present work contained a statement of the facts connected with the French revolution, together with satirical strictures upon what he accounted imperfections in the British constitution. He was not equal to his antagonist in copiousness of diction; but in shrewdness of remark and concise effective energy of style he was superior. Mr Burke's love of literary fame was great; and it had been highly gratified by the attention which his book had attracted, particularly among the higher orders. Hence, when he saw his reputation rudely assailed, his temper became ruffled; and he appears to have wished for an opportunity of separating himself from his former political associates. Accordingly, on the 6th of May, when the clauses of the Quebec bill were about to be discussed in a committee of the whole house, he rose, as he said, to speak to the general principle of the bill, and enlarged upon the importance of the act which they were about to perform, namely, that of appointing a legislature for a distant people. But he thought the first consideration ought to be the competency of the house to such an act. By what were called the "rights of man," a body of principles lately imported from France, all men are by nature free, and equal in respect to rights. If such a code were admitted, the power of the British legislature could extend no further than to call together the inhabitants of Canada to choose a constitution for themselves. But, rejecting this code, which was never preached without mischief, he assumed the principle, that Britain had acquired the right of legislating for Canada by conquest. The next question was, what model was to be followed in instituting a government for Canada; whether that of America, of France, or of Great Britain, which were the three great modern examples. In discussing this point, he diverged from the subject more immediately before the house, and took an opportunity to pronounce a vehement invective against the principles and enactments adopted by the French national assembly, in attempting to form a new constitution. He was called to order by some of his former friends, and an altercation ensued, in the course of which he asserted that a design had been formed by certain persons in this country against the constitution. Mr Fox accused Mr Burke of leaving the question before the house to seek a difference with him, and to fortify misrepresentations of something which he had said in a former debate concerning the French revolution; and he adhered to his former sentiments in approving the revolution, though not the new constitution of France. Mr Burke repeated his attack upon the French revolution, and declared that his friendship with Mr Fox was dissolved by that accused event. Mr Fox, with much apparent agitation, endeavoured to soften the asperity of Mr Burke, but without effect. He had evidently resolved upon the part he was to act; and this may be considered as the first occasion upon which any member of the British legislature represented his own conduct as seriously influenced, to the extent of deserting his former political views and associates, in consequence

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During the session, the question of the slave-trade was again brought forward by Mr Wilberforce, and was supported by Mr Pitt and Mr Fox; but his motion was nevertheless negatived by a considerable majority. The zeal of the nation in favour of abolition had however become very great; and as the evidence led before the House of Commons had represented the trade as the source of innumerable crimes and great misery, a company was established with the view of civilizing the natives of Africa, and of cultivating, by the hands of freemen, West India productions in that country; and having received a charter, they fixed on Sierra Leone as their principal settlement, and great expectations were entertained of the success of the project; expectations destined never to be realized.

On the 28th of March a message from his majesty announced that his endeavours to effect a pacification between Russia and the Turks having proved unsuccessful, he had judged it necessary to add weight to his representations, by making some further augmentation of his naval force. The point in dispute related to Oczakow, a town situated upon the Black Sea, at the mouth of the river Dnieper, which had been taken from the Turks, and was considered by Russia as a situation of great importance with reference to future operations against the Ottoman empire. The Turks, greatly exhausted by the contest, were reduced to the necessity of purchasing tranquillity at almost any price; but Prussia, alarmed at the growing power of Russia, had, in conjunction with Britain and Holland, offered to mediate a peace, with a view to procure the restoration of Oczakow to its former masters. Russia, however, refused the offered mediation, and also declined to renew any commercial treaty with Britain; though she had concluded one with France and another with Spain, and even entered into a quadruple alliance with these countries and with Austria, for the purpose of restraining the influence of Prussia, Britain, and Holland. In moving an address to his majesty on this message, Mr Pitt observed, that having entered into defensive alliances, which were admitted to be wise and politic, we ought to adhere to them; that Prussia was our ally, and any event calculated to affect that power, and diminish its influence on the Continent, would be injurious to us, as far as our mutual interests were concerned; and that the progress of the Russian arms against the Porte gave sufficient cause for alarm, since, if the power of the Porte were further humbled by its aspiring rival, Prussia would instantly feel it, and not Prussia alone, but all Europe. Mr Fox, on the contrary, expressed his conviction that Prussia could not be endangered by the progress of the Russian arms in Turkey, and that an alliance with Russia appeared to him the most natural and advantageous which we could possibly form. The address, however, was carried by a large majority. But the opposition, finding that they were supported by greater numbers than usual, and that a war with Russia was unpopular, brought the question repeatedly forward; and administration, perceiving the current of public opinion to run against them, abandoned their views, and refused to support Prussia in attempting to set bounds to the ambition of Russia.

On considering the state of Europe at the time, administration were probably guided, in their jealousy of Russia, by the maxims which had influenced the politics of Great Britain during the best periods of its history. The Spanish monarchy had long been in a state of debility, which rendered it of little weight or importance on the continent of Europe; and France had likewise suffered her armies to decline, and, by a sort of family compact,

had fallen under the influence of Austria; whilst the revolution, or rather the weakness which proceeded it, had incapacitated her for interfering in foreign affairs. In the mean time Austria and Russia, relinquishing all rivalry, had entered into a close combination, and acted in subserviency to their mutual ambition. Hence, to preserve some tolerable balance of power on the continent of Europe against these two great military empires, it became absolutely necessary for Great Britain and Holland to unite with Prussia and Sweden, and to protect the Turks, in order to prevent the further aggrandisement of these two great and warlike powers. The British ministry, however, finding a war with Russia likely to prove unpopular, consented that Great Britain should descend from her proud station of holding the balance of the Continent; and the consequences of this desertion speedily appeared; for Prussia, no longer backed by Britain, was under the necessity of joining Russia and Austria in their schemes of aggrandisement at the expense of the weaker powers, that she might strengthen herself by a share of the spoil, and maintain her position in relation to these powers. How far the British administration acted culpably in deserting what they accounted their duty, in compliance with the apparent wish of the nation, is a question which was never discussed, because the consequences of their conduct were soon overlooked and forgotten amidst the great events which speedily occurred. From the love of popularity, and the habit of resisting all the projects of administration, opposition at this time encouraged the pusillanimity of their countrymen; whilst the members of administration, fearful of losing their places, suffered their country to be degraded from its proper rank and influence in Europe, and prepared the way for the partition of Poland, the projected partition of France, the war of the revolution by which that project was resisted, and the immeasurable aggrandisement of the power which soon proved so dangerous to Britain and to all Europe.

An unsuccessful effort was made during this session of parliament by Sir Gilbert Elliot, to procure for the members of the church of Scotland an exemption from the test act. But the Roman Catholics in England were more fortunate in obtaining relief from certain penal statutes. As the Catholic church was the great object both of political and religious terror in the first stages of the reformation, the English statute book was loaded with the most rigorous edicts against the professors of that obnoxious faith; and though some of these were removed in the year 1780, yet in 1791 not less than seventy pages of Burn's Ecclesiastical Law were occupied with the enumeration of the penal statutes in force against the Roman Catholics. Amongst these were some of the most sanguinary nature. For example, it was high treason and death to make a convert to the Catholic faith; and severe penalties were enacted against papists for hearing mass by some statutes, whilst by others they were compelled to attend the established worship, however contrary to their consciences. A reform was therefore imperiously called for, and had become the more reasonable, as, in the year 1790, a body of Catholic dissenters had formally protested against the temporal power of the pope, and against his assumed authority to release men from their civil obligations, or to dispense with the sacredness of oaths. Mr Milford, therefore, brought forward a bill to relieve the protesting Catholics from the penalties and disabilities to which persons professing the Romish religion were subject by law; and the bill passed unanimously, excepting that Mr Fox wished to extend it, not merely to protesting, but to all Roman Catholics; upon the principle, that the state has no right to inquire into the opinions, either political or religious, of the people, but only to take cognizance of their actions.

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The war now carrying on in India gave rise to some debates during the present session. Like all other wars in that quarter of the globe, it had been undertaken on our part for the purpose of aggrandisement, and on the part of our antagonist from a jealousy of the British power. The ostensible cause of the war; however, was, that the Dutch had long been in possession of two forts upon the frontier of Hyder Ali's kingdom of Mysore; that in the year 1780 Hyder had seized and garrisoned these forts, under the pretence that they belonged to a vassal of his; that having speedily thereafter induced the Dutch and French to join him against the British, the forts were given up to the Dutch; that in 1789, Tipppo had again claimed the forts; and that the Dutch, dreading his power, had sold the forts to the rajah of Travancore, a vassal or ally of the British. Tipppo, resenting this mode of evading his claim, made war upon Travancore; but as the rajah had effected the purchase under secret instructions from the British government in India, he was defended by them. Thus the war was said on our part to have been entered into in defence of the just rights of our ally, the rajah of Travancore; whilst on the other hand it was contended that this was nothing more than an attempt to subdue the sovereign of Mysore, and extend our eastern empire, at a time when the power of France was annihilated, and our own forces in great strength in that quarter. In the trial of Mr Hastings little progress was made during the present session. As parliament had been dissolved during the dependence of the trial, a question occurred, whether that circumstance did not put an end to the impeachment. The friends of Mr Hastings adopted the affirmative side of the question, and were supported by Mr Erskine and the attorney and solicitor general, Macdonald and Scott; whilst Mr Pitt, Mr Burke, and Mr Fox contended that a dissolution could have no effect upon an impeachment. After much discussion, it was carried in the House of Commons that the impeachment was still depending, and the same decision was adopted by the House of Lords. The session of parliament was concluded on the 10th of June.

As the avowed object of the first leaders of the revolution in France was the establishment of a system of political freedom, or of a representative government, with a hereditary monarch at its head; and as one of the consequences which they expected to follow from the establishment of the new system was the complete abolition of wars, which they ascribed entirely to the ambition of kings; the progress of the revolution was regarded with much favour by many persons in Great Britain. The reform of the Gallican church, though it alarmed the English clergy, was favourably regarded by the English dissenters; and the abolition of titles of honour was not disliked in a country where they are only enjoyed by a few individuals, and are chiefly valued on account of the privilege of hereditary legislation by which they are accompanied. The English also had long been accustomed to boast of their political freedom, and of their superiority in this respect over their French neighbours; and hence, when the populace of Paris rose in arms, when the military refused to act against them, and when the state prison or fortress of the Bastille was taken and demolished, many persons in Great Britain regarded as an imitation of the efforts of our ancestors the attempts made by the French to shake off the ancient despotism, and to renovate the order of society. The public at large indeed had not yet given much attention to the subject; but of the speculative and enthusiastic there was a sufficient number to form numerous convivial parties in commemoration of the 14th of July, the day on which the Bastille had been taken. These meetings, it is true, were on the whole regarded

rather unfavourably by persons attached to the monarchical part of our constitution; but no public expression of George III. disapprobation had hitherto appeared.

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A festive meeting of this nature was to have been held at Birmingham on the 14th of July 1791; but several days preceding it, some unknown person had left in a public-house copies of an inflammatory handbill, representing the late transactions in France as proper to be imitated in England. The contents of this placard were very generally circulated, and produced much conversation in the town; upon which the magistrates offered a reward of a hundred guineas for discovering the author, printer, or publisher. Meanwhile the friends of the intended meeting disclaimed in the strongest terms the sentiments expressed in the seditious handbill; and finding their views misrepresented, they at first resolved that the meeting should not take place; but another determination was afterwards adopted, and the company assembled to the number of eighty. The party, however, had scarcely met when the house was surrounded by a tumultuous rabble, who expressed their disapprobation by hisses and groans, and by shouting "church and king." Upon this the meeting immediately dispersed. But in the evening the mob attacked and burned a Unitarian meeting-house belonging to the congregation of Dr Priestley; and although this distinguished person had not been present at the meeting, his house, from which he was compelled to fly with his family, was also attacked, and his library, his valuable philosophical apparatus, and his manuscripts and papers, were destroyed. During the three succeeding days they destroyed some other meeting-houses, together with the dwelling-houses of several eminent dissenters in the neighbourhood; and it was not till the night of the fourth day that some parties of light dragoons arrived. The damage done was very great; and the magistrates were accused of at first favouring and encouraging the mob, whose excesses they afterwards found it impossible to restrain. Five of the rioters were tried at Worcester, and one was convicted and executed. At Warwick twelve were tried, and four convicted of burning and destroying houses, three of whom were executed, and one was reprieved upon the application of the magistrates, as it appeared that his interference in the riot had been accidental.

At this time a foundation was laid on the Continent for the most important political changes. The various nations of Europe had for some centuries owed their independence to the jealousies which they mutually entertained. Many petty states were altogether unable to contend in war against their powerful neighbours; but they owed their safety to the circumstance of their neighbours being held in check by other great powers, who resisted all attempts at aggrandisement. When one nation became dangerous by its ambition, the combination of a number of other states repressed its machinations; and thus the Spanish, and afterwards the French monarchies, were restrained within due bounds. But in the course of the century the power of Russia had become formidable in Europe; and its rulers sought rather to undermine than to overthrow that balance of strength to which the lesser states of Europe had owed their safety. A former Russian sovereign had entered into a close alliance with the head of the house of Austria; and, notwithstanding the talents of the great Frederick, this union had nearly proved fatal to the Prussian monarchy. Finding the advantage of such an alliance, the house of Austria attempted at the same time to attach itself to France, its ancient hereditary enemy, by the marriage of the archduchess Marie Antoinette to the dauphin, afterwards Louis XVI.; and this marriage fully produced all its intended political effects. The French court, relinquishing its former policy of humbling

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To this state of affairs Russia and Austria, acting in conjunction, saw nothing to resist their ambition. They had recently wished to seize upon and divide the richest provinces of Turkey; but the Austrians having met with unexpected resistance, desisted from the attempt. The Russians however were more successful. The king of Prussia, with the aid of Britain and Holland, had attempted to restrain their progress; but being deserted by Britain, he now found it necessary to keep on fair terms both with Russia and Austria; and for this purpose, as well as to avoid being left behind in the career of usurpation and aggrandisement, he was compelled to enter into all their ambitious schemes. Poland and France were at this time two of the weakest states in Europe. For the sake of erecting a barrier to his own states, the Prussian monarch had encouraged the king and the leading nobles to form a new political constitution for Poland, by which its government might be strengthened; but Russia and Austria had cast their eyes upon this country, with a view, in imitation of what had been done in 1772, of seizing its best provinces; and the king of Prussia now found it necessary to acquiesce in the project. And the state of France at this period held out strong temptations for the formation of a similar project respecting it. Leopold, emperor of Germany, had a fair excuse for interfering in French affairs, namely, to rescue the king from the state of thralldom to which he had been reduced by his subjects; and the other princes of Europe had become alarmed at the example set by France, of limiting the authority of the monarch, of destroying the privileges of the nobility, and of reducing to a level all classes of persons in the state. The united powers of the north, therefore, now resolved to restore the French king and his nobles, but at the same time determined to divide among themselves and their allies some of the provinces of France. Towards the close of the summer 1791 these points were adjusted, at a conference held at Pillnitz in Saxony, between the emperor Leopold and the king of Prussia. The treaty entered into was intended to be kept secret; but the substance of it soon transpired, and afterwards, by the hatred which it excited in the French nation, proved the cause of important events. Its general object is understood to have been the dismemberment of Poland, and also of part of France. Poland was to be divided among the three great military powers in different portions. With regard to France, the emperor was to obtain Bavaria in exchange for the French Netherlands, which he was to conquer, and transfer, along with the Austrian Netherlands, to the elector of Bavaria. The Archduke Charles was to obtain the duchy of Lorraine; Strasburg and Alsace were to be restored to the empire; the king of Sardinia was to receive Dauphiné, if he acceded to the coalition; Spain, on the same condition, was to be accommodated with the French portion of the island of St Domingo, with Corsica, Roussillon, and Bearn; and

the Swiss cantons, if they became parties to the coalition, were likewise to receive certain territories. This treaty was publicly disavowed; but it was nevertheless universally believed throughout Europe to have been entered into, and was accordingly talked of under the appellation of the "Concert of Princes."

Parliament assembled on the 31st of January 1792, and a variety of uninteresting debates occurred, the principal of which related to the armament which had been fitted out on account of the dispute with Russia concerning the fortress of Oczakow. During the preceding autumn, the Duke of York, second son of the king, had married a daughter of the king of Prussia. This prince was believed to be a favourite son; and as the marriage in question had been contracted, not from political considerations, but the private choice of the parties, it gave general satisfaction. A provision of £37,000 per annum was readily made by parliament for the royal pair. On the 17th of February Mr Pitt brought forward a statement of the public revenue, from which it appeared that nearly half a million might be applied towards the extinction of taxes, or the payment of the national debt; and this was accordingly done; the additional tax recently laid on malt, the taxes on female servants, on carts and waggons, and on houses under seven windows, and part of the duty on candles, being those repealed. On the 2d of April the question of the slave-trade was again brought under the consideration of the House of Commons by Mr Wilberforce. He disclaimed any project of emancipating the negroes, but contended that, by the abolition of the importation of new slaves, the state of those in the West Indies would be improved. The slave-trade was defended on this occasion by Colonel Tarleton and Mr Jenkinson; while Mr Wilberforce was supported by Mr Montague, Mr Whitbread, and Mr Milbank. Mr Dundas professed himself a friend to the abolition, but entertained doubts with respect to the mode of effecting it. Mr Addington agreed in opinion with Mr Dundas. He thought the trade ought to exist for some years longer, and therefore could not vote for an immediate abolition. Mr Fox deprecated every kind of deception or delusion practised upon the country, and reprobated in strong terms Mr Addington's views of the subject. Mr Dundas moved, as an amendment to Mr Wilberforce's motion, that the trade should be abolished gradually; and although Mr Pitt declared his disapprobation of the amendment, the motion for a gradual abolition was carried by a considerable majority. Soon afterwards Mr Dundas stated the regulations which he meant to propose for the gradual abolition of the trade. The chief of these consisted in increasing the duties upon the age of the negroes imported; abolishing the trade as far as not necessary for the supply of our own islands; limiting the tonnage to be employed in it; punishing British subjects guilty of crimes in carrying it on; and providing that the importation of negroes into the British colonies should cease on the first of January 1801. Mr Wilberforce disclaimed all acquiescence in these propositions; and Mr Fox ridiculed them, by asking where the baptismal register was kept on the coast of Africa, by which the age of those who were to be exported could be ascertained. A variety of amendments were now proposed; and it was at length agreed that the period of abolition should be fixed for the first of January 1796. In the upper house the advocates of abolition were less successful; and they were not a little provoked at finding one of the younger branches of the royal family, the Duke of Clarence, now William IV., declaring himself decidedly hostile to their wishes. It was ultimately resolved that evidence should be heard at the bar, which necessarily produced delay, and little or no progress was made during the rest of the session. On the 15th of April

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Mr Sheridan moved for an inquiry into certain grievances complained of by the royal burghs of Scotland, fifty out of the sixty-six having concurred in the petition upon which Mr Sheridan grounded his motion. The motion was rejected by Mr Anstruther, Mr Dundas, and Sir J. St Clair Erskine, upon the general ground that no serious grievance existed; and the inquiry was refused by a large majority. Excepting some debates relative to the French revolution, nothing further of any importance occurred during the present session.

That we may not afterwards have occasion to interrupt the detail of the transactions connected with the state of affairs in France, we shall here notice the war in India, and which was now brought to a fortunate termination. The western side of the peninsula of Hindustan consists of a level country for upwards of seventy miles inwards. Behind this tract, and parallel to the ocean, runs a chain of lofty mountains, presenting a front towards the west, broken into tremendous precipices, but on the other side consisting of an extensive plain, gradually descending eastward to the Bay of Bengal, and forming the territory of the Mahrattas, Mysore, Madras, the Carnatic, and other states. Now as Tippos Sahib possessed territory on both sides of these mountains, which are denominated Ghauts, from the narrow paths or passes by which they are crossed, the army of the Carnatic, under General Meadows, was directed to attack this territory from the east; the Bombay army, under General Abercromby, was to reduce the country to the westward of the Ghauts; the Mahrattas, and the nizams of the Deccan, agreed to attack Tippos's country on the north and north-east, where it bordered on their own territories; and Seringapatam, his capital, was fixed upon as the point towards which the whole of the hostile armies were to direct and concentrate their efforts. On the 15th of June 1790, General Meadows entered Tippos's country. The grand army on this occasion amounted to fourteen thousand effective European troops, a body of men which no power in India could encounter in the field. A variety of operations occurred; but little appears to have been effected towards the subjugation of the enemy, except the capture of the country to the westward of the Ghauts, till the end of February 1791, when Lord Cornwallis assumed the command in person. His first operation was directed against Bangalore, which he reached on the 5th of March; and a practicable breach having been made in the wall, the fort was stormed on the 21st, with little loss to the British. Of the garrison not less than a thousand were bayoneted, and a small number taken. Being joined by above fourteen thousand of the nizams' troops, and seven hundred Europeans, with four thousand five hundred and eighty troops under Colonel Oldham, Lord Cornwallis proceeded towards Seringapatam, where he arrived on the 15th of May, after a difficult march in bad weather over a hilly and barren country. Tippos lost no time in displaying a considerable force in the field, with the view of covering his capital; but being beaten, though with little loss, he was forced to retire within the walls of Seringapatam, which, defended by a river at this season swelled with the rains, seemed secure against attack. In fact, circumstances had completely defeated the object of the combined operation which had been so ably projected. Lord Cornwallis was in want of provisions for supporting his army during a protracted siege; and as General Abercromby had not been able to join him from the west, it was judged expedient to retire to Bangalore, after destroying the battering train. On his retreat Lord Cornwallis was joined by the Mahrattas to the number of about thirty thousand. General Abercromby also retired across the Ghauts with a fatigued and dispirited army; and thus for the present Tippos escaped a siege in his capital.

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After his retreat, Lord Cornwallis employed himself for some time in reducing various small forts in the neighbourhood of Bangalore, some of them of such natural strength as, in any other hands but those of the feeble natives of that country, to be absolutely impregnable. Nantidurg, built on the summit of a mountain 1700 feet in height, three fourths of which are altogether inaccessible, fell after a siege which lasted from the 22d of September to the 18th of October; the place being assaulted by a breach at midnight, and taken, though not by surprise. The fortress of Savendurg, eighteen miles to the westward of Bangalore, was still more strongly situated. It stood on the summit of an insulated rock, rising about half a mile in perpendicular height, from a table or base of eight or ten miles in circumference, and divided at its summit into two hills, each having its peculiar defences, capable of being maintained independent of the lower works; while the whole was surrounded by a strong wall, with cross walls and barriers in every accessible part. Yet this stupendous fortress was taken in ten days.

In December, General Abercromby once more crossed the Ghauts, and proceeded eastward towards Mysore; while Lord Cornwallis, in the beginning of February 1792, advanced from Bangalore, and arrived on the 5th within sight of Seringapatam. Tippos Sultan occupied a position under the walls, and there resolved to make a stand in defence of his capital. On the 6th, at eight o'clock in the evening, the attack was made on the sultan's camp. After a sharp engagement at different points, parties of the British crossed the river, and established themselves in the island on which Seringapatam stands. This movement proved decisive. Tippos, finding himself in danger of having his retreat intercepted, was compelled to retire; and being pressed by the invaders on all sides, while his palace and gardens were in their possession, and his power reduced within the narrow limits of a fortress, he found it necessary to endeavour to purchase peace upon almost any terms. With this view he released two prisoners, Lieutenants Chalmers and Nash, and requested the former of these gentlemen to present a letter from him to Lord Cornwallis. The operations of the siege, however, still continued, and, on the 19th of February, the trenches were opened; whilst the Bombay army, under General Abercromby, invested the western side of the capital. But a cessation of hostilities was agreed to on the 23d of February, and a treaty of peace concluded, by which it was stipulated, first, that Tippos was to cede one half of his dominions to the British and Indian powers; secondly, that he was to pay in money three crores and thirty lacs of rupees; thirdly, that all prisoners were to be restored; and fourthly, that two of the sultan's sons were to become hostages for the due performance of the treaty. On the 26th, the two princes, each mounted on an elephant, richly caparisoned, proceeded from the fort to Lord Cornwallis's camp, where they were received by his lordship with his staff. The eldest, Abdul Kalik, was about ten, and the youngest, Moosad-ud-deen, about eight years of age; and they were dressed in long white muslin gowns, with red turbans richly adorned with pearls. Educated from infancy with the utmost care, the spectators were astonished to behold in these children all the reserve, politeness, and attention, of maturer years. The kindness with which they were received by the British commander appeared to afford them satisfaction; some presents were exchanged; and the scene is described by an eye-witness as in the highest degree interesting. It was the 19th of March before the definitive treaty was finally adjusted, and delivered by the young princes into the hands of Lord Cornwallis.

In the meanwhile scenes of unparalleled interest were

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In France, though the house of Bourbon had supported the Roman Catholic religion, yet, upon the whole, they were of a much more liberal spirit than any other royal family in Europe, and had given greater encouragement to letters, and to every kind of improvement. It is not wonderful, therefore, that the desire for improving the condition of mankind, and simplifying the arrangements of society, which had been so successfully pursued in other countries, should have become extremely prevalent in France. Unfortunately, however, though the character of the reigning monarch led him to encourage such projects, yet his undecided and inactive spirit, together with the embarrassed state of the finances, prevented him from taking the lead in these changes, or from repressing them when inordinately pursued by others. Meanwhile the example of prosperity enjoyed under the free constitution of Great

Britain, and the pride of having recently contributed to the establishment of a republican government in North America, fixed the character of any changes of a political nature, which at this period originated in France, whether among men of letters, the army, or the people at large. But in forming a political constitution, the vanity of the French, which induced them to avoid the appearance of servile imitation, had unhappily led them to differ in one most essential point from the British constitution. Their legislature consisted only of a king and a single house of representatives; whereas in Britain, by means of an intermediate estate, that of the peerage, naturally jealous of popular innovation, laws injurious to the royal prerogative are prevented from being enacted without the king being involved in dispute with the Commons. But in France the king himself was under the necessity, in such cases, of preventing the passing of the law, by personally interposing a negative; that is, he was placed in the unpopular and absurd situation of opposing his single judgment to the united will of a nation, and that too in perilous and critical times, when he could not fail to be suspected of disliking a constitution by which his power was taken away. Still, however, the representative government of Britain had been the model on which the French proceeded; and there is no doubt that they expected, during any contest in which they might be involved with the powers of the Continent, that they would enjoy, if not the support, at least the neutrality and favourable countenance of the British nation. But, on the other hand, the passion for innovation which seized the French nation, had in many instances proceeded to extravagant lengths; and there was reason to anticipate, on the part of the court of London, some alarm lest this passion might communicate itself in an inconvenient degree to Britain, where, though political abuses were less flagrant, and the passion would consequently find less food for its exertion, enough might yet exist to kindle disturbances and produce anxiety.

In the month of April 1792 a society was instituted in London, at the head of which appeared Mr Grey, Mr Baker, Mr Whitbread, Mr Sheridan, Mr Lambton, Mr Erskine, and several other distinguished members of parliament, for the purpose of obtaining a reform in the representation of the people. The association assumed the title of "The Friends of the People," and it was speedily joined by some respectable characters in the commercial and literary world. Similar societies had, at former periods, existed in Great Britain; and the Duke of Richmond, Mr Pitt, and others, while they zealously advocated parliamentary reform, had attended meetings, not merely of persons acting in their individual capacity, but of persons appearing as delegates from other societies. At the present period, however, government appears to have regarded any association of this kind as unusually dangerous. The society had resolved that, early in the ensuing session, a motion should be brought forward in the House of Commons for a reform of parliament, and that the conduct of the business should be committed to Mr Grey and Mr Erskine; and, in conformity with the intentions of the association, Mr Grey, on the 30th of April, gave notice in the house of a motion which he intended, next session, to submit to their consideration, for a reform in the representation of the people. Its necessity, he said, had been admitted both by Mr Pitt and Mr Fox. The times were indeed critical, and the minds of the people agitated; but his object was to tranquillize them, by removing every cause of complaint. Mr Pitt declared, with unusual reluctance, that he objected both to the time and the mode in which this business was brought forward; that the present was not a time to make hazardous experiments; and that he saw with concern, gentlemen who

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might only desire an amelioration of our institutions united in an association with others who professed not reform only, but direct hostility to the very form of our government, and who threatened the extinction of monarchy and every thing which promoted order and subordination in a state. Mr Fox declared himself satisfied concerning the necessity of a reform in the representation, but that he never entertained very sanguine hopes of its accomplishment. Had his honourable friend consulted him, he should have hesitated in recommending the part he had taken; but having taken it, he could not see why the period was improper for the discussion. He professed a strong attachment to the British constitution, but did not regard this as the only free country in the world. After a tumultuous debate, in which Mr Burke and Mr Wyndham opposed Mr Sheridan and Mr Erskine, the subject was dropped. In the mean time a variety of political pamphlets daily appeared, the most remarkable of which was a publication by Thomas Paine, entitled *The Rights of Man*. This being a direct and inflammatory attack upon the whole principles and practice of the British constitution, administration thought fit to issue a royal proclamation against the publishing and dispersing of seditious writings; enjoining the magistrates to exercise vigilance in attempting to discover the authors of such writings, and exhorting the people to guard against all attempts which aimed at the subversion of regular government. It is not easy to perceive what precise purpose government intended to serve by this proclamation. The authors of the seditious publications alluded to did not conceal themselves; and the publications were openly sold without any attempt to suppress them by prosecutions. Perhaps it was intended to prepare the minds of men for future measures of direct hostility against France; perhaps it was only meant to rouse in the friends of government a spirit of opposition to the schemes of innovation which were at this time afloat. But whatever object administration might have in view, the effect of their proclamation was to excite general curiosity, and to serve as a public advertisement to the dangerous writings of Thomas Paine and others. In all parts of the island multitudes of persons, who had not hitherto interrupted their ordinary occupations to attend to the transactions of the Continent, or the speculative discussions which the present state of France had excited, were now seen crowding to the shops of booksellers inquiring for the treatises, the names or titles of which they knew not, against which the king's proclamation had issued; every printing press in the Kingdom was occupied, and copies could scarcely be supplied in sufficient abundance to satisfy the demand. Nor did the folly of government stop here. On the 25th of May the master of the rolls moved an address to his majesty, in pursuance of the proclamation, the object of which he admitted to be Mr Paine's works; and having read an extract from one of the pamphlets of that writer, importing that all kings were tyrants, and their subjects slaves, he complained of the circulation of such publications. Mr Grey asserted that the minister, apprehensive of the effects of the association of the friends of the people, had concerted this measure with an insidious view of separating those who had long been connected; and alleged that such sinister practices were delighted in by a gentleman whose political life was a tissue of inconsistency, and who never proposed a measure without intending to delude his hearers. Mr Fox disapproved of the proclamation, because it was insidious and ambiguous, tending to propagate vague and unnecessary alarm. Mr Pitt did not impute any improper design to the new association; but it might be taken advantage of by ill-disposed persons, who, under the shelter of a respectable body, might push forward their own

sinister designs. The plan of the persons to whom he alluded was evidently to overturn the monarchy, and convert the kingdom into a republic. The address to the throne was agreed to without a division. In the House of Lords, on the 31st of May, a similar address was voted after some debate; and parliament was prorogued a short time afterwards.

The eyes of all Europe were now turned towards France; and the combination which the continental monarchs were known to have formed against that country was expected speedily to issue in action. The king of Sweden, who was fond of war, having now settled all disputes with Russia, offered to lead in person the armies of the combined powers, to destroy in France those new institutions and opinions which threatened to subvert the whole ancient system of public order in Europe. But continuing at variance with his nobility, he was assassinated at a masquerade on the 16th of March, by an enthusiast of the name of Ankerström, who boasted, on being seized, that he had liberated his country from a tyrant. In the meanwhile Leopold, emperor of Germany, had also died, and been succeeded by his son Francis II. Leopold had chosen to temporize with France; but his successor thought it unnecessary to observe any measures of caution with that country. On some remonstrances being made by the French government against his permitting troops to assemble on the frontiers, he avowed the concert of principles against the constitution of France, and stated it to be one of the conditions necessary to the preservation of peace, that the neighbouring powers should have no reason for the apprehensions which arose from the present weakness of the internal government of France. This acknowledged intention to interfere in the internal affairs of the French nation produced a proposal on the part of the French king to the national assembly, which was readily acceded to, for declaring war against the king of Hungary and Bohemia; and in a short time war was in like manner declared against Prussia and Sardinia.

In the meanwhile, though the combined princes had not probably as yet completely adjusted their respective shares of the spoils of France and Poland, yet, that the latter might be kept in a state of weakness, and that all traces of the new principles might as far as possible be obliterated, the empress of Russia gave notice of her determination to invade Poland with an army of a hundred and fifty thousand men, for the purpose of overturning the new constitution. No provision had been made by the king to resist such a force; but an attempt was made by Kosciuszko, a Polish nobleman, who had served under General Washington in America, to defend the independence of the country; and some battles were, in consequence, fought. But the Russians continued to advance; and on the 23d of July the king, despairing of the result of the contest, submitted without reserve to Russia, and consented to the restoration of the old constitution, with all its weakness and anarchy.

While the combined princes were thus successful in the north, a very different fate awaited their efforts against France. The French king and his ministry caused the Austrian Netherlands to be invaded; and four different detachments under Lafayette and other generals were directed to enter that country at different points. They made some progress, but their raw troops were speedily repulsed; and when Prussia and Austria, who had undertaken the extinction of the revolution in France, had completed their preparations, the Duke of Brunswick was appointed commander of the combined armies. In a long manifesto issued by the emperor and the king of Prussia, they thought it necessary to disclaim all views of aggrandisement, or interference in the internal administration of

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Reign of George III. France; but they declared themselves resolved to re-establish in that country public security, meaning the ancient order of things, and to protect the persons and property of all loyal subjects; threatened to punish as rebels all who resisted them; and declared their determination to give up the city of Paris to the most terrible vengeance if the least insult were offered to the king, the queen, or the royal family. The Duke of Brunswick also issued a manifesto, in his own name, dated from his head-quarters at Coblenz, in which he declared that the two allied courts had no intention to make conquests in France, and that they intended merely to deliver the king from captivity, and to restore his authority; he promised protection to all who submitted to the king, required the national guards to protect the public safety till further orders, and threatened to treat those who resisted him in arms as rebels to their king; enjoined the officers and soldiers of the French regular troops to submit to their legitimate sovereign; declared the French magistrates responsible, on pain of losing their heads and estates, for every disorder which they should not have attempted to prevent; menaced with death the inhabitants of towns and villages who should defend themselves against his troops, but promised protection to those who should submit; called upon the city of Paris to yield instantly to the authority of the king; declared the members of the national assembly, and the magistrates and national guards of Paris, personally responsible for disobedience, and amenable to military law; threatened, on the word of the emperor and king, if the palace of the Tuilleries were forced, or the least outrage offered to the king, queen, and royal family of France, or if they were not immediately placed in safety and set at liberty, to inflict the most exemplary punishment, by giving up the city of Paris to military execution; and declared that no other laws could be acknowledged in France, excepting those derived from the king, who was invited to repair to a frontier town, where he might provide for the restoration of order, and the regular administration of his kingdom.

This fatal manifesto had no sooner been published than all France was in commotion. The insolent language employed by two foreign powers, one of which had for ages been regarded with a sort of hereditary hostility, wounded the pride and the patriotism of every Frenchman; many who were enemies of the revolution could not brook an open attack upon the national independence; the zeal of those who had been enthusiastic promoters of freedom was kindled into absolute frenzy; and multitudes from all quarters hastened to the frontiers to share the danger of protecting the independence of their country. Unhappily for the monarch, the enemies of the nation had loudly declared themselves as his friends; and the restoration of absolute power was made the excuse for a hostile invasion of France. The king, therefore, and all who were attached to him, became objects of public hatred. The republican party had previously been small, but every hour now procured it a fresh accession of strength; and as it appeared dangerous to intrust the national defence to the hands of the king, it was resolved to get rid of his authority altogether. He was therefore dethroned on the 10th of August, and a republic proclaimed; and soon afterwards the capital became the scene of a sanguinary massacre of those persons who had been imprisoned on suspicion of adhering to his cause.

The Duke of Brunswick was, in the mean time, advancing into the heart of the country at the head of the combined army. Verdun and Longwy had surrendered to his arms in the end of August, and by this time he had reached the neighbourhood of Chalons. But he had met with opposition at every step of his progress; and the people of the country had removed all kinds of provisions from the

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The important transactions which were now taking place on the Continent produced a powerful impression upon the British nation, where the minds of men, as already remarked, had been directed to political questions by the royal proclamation against seditious publications. According as the sentiments of individuals varied, they pursued with terror or with satisfaction the Duke of Brunswick's manifesto. Men of a patriotic character, however, whatever their political opinions might be, were not dissatisfied to see a nation capable, even amidst great public confusion, of repelling an invasion by the best disciplined armies, conducted by the most experienced commanders in Europe. But the

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Besides the society called the Friends of the People, other associations of less distinguished persons, called the Constitutional and Corresponding Societies, were established in London: and during the autumn societies assuming the name of Friends of the People were established in most towns and villages throughout the country, for the avowed purpose of bringing about a reform of parliament. In proportion, however, as the character of the French revolution began to display itself, in the sanguinary scenes which were daily enacted, and in the extravagant projects and sentiments which were entertained, persons of rank and property became alarmed. In the month of November an association was instituted at the Crown and Anchor tavern in London, the avowed object of which was the protection of liberty and property against the attempts of republicans and levellers; and similar associations for the support of government were set on foot in other parts of the metropolis, and throughout the country.

Parliament assembled on the 13th of December 1792. The speech from the throne intimated that his majesty

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When the usual address was moved in the House of Commons, Lord Weymouth opposed it, on the ground that the speech from the throne had calumniated the people of England; that, so far from any spirit of insurrection existing, the kingdom was on the contrary overflowing with loyalty; that speculative political opinions had always been agitated under the free constitution of Britain; and that the persons who were thought most disaffected wished merely to reform that constitution. Mr Fox declared that the present was the most momentous crisis that he had ever read of in the history of this country; and that on the conduct of parliament depended, not merely the fate of the British constitution, but that of doctrines affecting the happiness and well-being of all human kind. He affirmed, that there was not a fact stated as such in the speech from the throne which was not false; he denied the existence of any insurrection; he justified the exultation which many persons had expressed on account of the retreat of the Duke of Brunswick; he described the calling out of the militia as a fraud, intended to induce the people to believe that cause of alarm existed, and thereby to bring them more completely under the influence of government; he treated the opening of the Scheldt as no just cause of war; and he recommended the removal of acknowledged grievances, as the certain means of appeasing the discontent of the people. Mr Windham now deserted the opposition, and joined administration in contending that there existed great danger to the constitution. He also declared his approbation of the march of the combined armies into France. Mr Dundas asserted, that under the pretext of reform, the example of France had been held out for imitation to the people of this country; and that the object of the French was evidently the aggrandisement of their dominions. Mr Sheridan denied the existence of any just cause of alarm, and declared that he would vote for the impeachment of any English minister who should enter into a war for the purpose of re-establishing the former despotism in France, or who should dare, in such a cause, to spend one guinea, or shed one drop of blood. From the commencement of Mr Pitt's administration a considerable number of members of parliament, the remnant of the coalition, had remained in opposition to his measures. But in consequence of the alarm which had at this time diffused itself among persons of high rank, and perhaps also as a plausible excuse for deserting a fruitless and unprofitable opposition, a great number of the members of the party hitherto hostile to administration now joined

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in supporting those measures which they perceived to be agreeable to the executive power. Accordingly, on a division there appeared for the address two hundred and seventy, and for the amendment only fifty. In the House of Lords similar debates took place upon the address, and opposition also experienced a desertion of part of its members. The Duke of Norfolk, the Marquis of Lansdown, Lord Rawdon, afterwards Earl of Moira and Marquis of Hastings, and Earl Stanhope, declared themselves averse to war; whilst Lord Grenville, Lord Stormont, the Marquis Townshend, and others, supported the sentiments expressed in the king's speech.

After the French king had been dethroned, Earl Gower the British ambassador was recalled; but the French ambassador, M. Chauvelin, still continued to reside in London. On the 15th of December Mr Fox moved that a minister should be sent to Paris to treat with the provisional executive government of France; declaring, that by this motion he meant not to approve of the conduct of the French government, but simply to record it as his opinion, that it was the true policy of every nation to treat with the existing government of every other nation with which it had relative interests, without regarding how that government was constituted; and that we could have no stronger objection to the existing government of France, than to the governments of Algiers and Morocco, in both of which countries we had resident consuls. This motion gave rise to a very animated debate, in which the opposition were accused of desiring to encourage discontent and sedition, and were defended by Mr Taylor, Mr Grey, and Colonel Tarleton. But Mr Fox's motion was negatived.

On the 19th of December Lord Grenville introduced into the House of Lords what has been called the alien bill, authorizing government to dismiss from the kingdom such foreigners as they might think fit, and which passed after some opposition from the Earl of Lauderdale and the Marquis of Lansdown. On the 28th of December Mr Secretary Dundas urged the House of Commons to adopt the alien bill, on account of the extraordinary influx of foreigners into the country, and the dissatisfaction of persons at home. Sir Gilbert Elliot, in supporting the bill, expressed his regret at being under the necessity of differing from his former political associates; and Mr Burke, as usual, spoke with very great vehemence on the subject. I vote, said he, for the present bill, because I consider it as the means of saving my life, and all our lives, from the hands of assassins. When they smile, I see blood trickling down their face: I see their insidious purposes; I see that the object of all their cajoling is blood. I now warn my country to beware of those execrable philosophers, whose only object is to destroy every thing that is good here, and establish immorality and murder by precept and example. While the alien bill was under consideration, another measure allied to it in principle was introduced; namely, a bill to prevent the circulation of assignats and other paper money under the authority of France. During the month of December an order of council was also issued for preventing the exportation of corn to France, and some ships which had grain on board were compelled to unload. On the 26th of December an act of indemnity passed upon the subject.

Affairs were now fast hastening to an open rupture with France. On the 17th of December M. Chauvelin transmitted a note to Lord Grenville, one of the secretaries of state, in which, in the name of the executive council of the French republic, he demanded to know whether his Britannic majesty was to be considered as a neutral or a hostile power. No wish, he said, existed on the part of France to entertain any doubt upon the subject; and they even desired to answer previously all those reproaches which

might be thrown out against them. With regard to the decree of the French convention of the 19th November, it had been misinterpreted. The French republic did not intend to favour insurrections in neutral or friendly states; and the decree applied only to those people who, after having acquired their liberty, might request the assistance of the French republic by a solemn and unequivocal expression of the general will. As to the neutrality of Holland, it would be respected while that power confined itself within the bounds of strict neutrality; and with regard to the opening of the Scheldt, it was a question irrevocably decided by reason and justice. It was added, that on the fatal supposition of a war being resolved on, whilst the intentions of France were thus peaceful and conciliatory, the whole weight and responsibility of it would sooner or later fall on those who had provoked it.

Lord Grenville's answer to this note, which bears date 31st December 1792, disclaimed considering M. Chauvelin in any other public character than that of minister from his most Christian majesty. It denied that the decree of the 19th November was satisfactorily explained, as the promoters of sedition in every country might still have in view the case in which they might count beforehand on the support of France. It affirmed that the neutrality of Holland had already been violated; and that the unimportance of the Scheldt would only render the opening of its navigation a clearer proof of the existence of an intention to insult the allies of England by violating their rights, which were guarded by the faith of treaties.

An official note from the executive power of France was transmitted through M. Chauvelin in reply to Lord Grenville's answer, in which another effort was made to explain the obnoxious decree of the 19th November. In this document all intention of effecting a conquest of the Netherlands was disclaimed; and it was added, that if the Belgians, from any motive whatever, consented to deprive themselves of the navigation of the Scheldt, France would not oppose it. In an answer to this note by Lord Grenville, these explanations were declared to be unsatisfactory. On the 17th of January M. Chauvelin sent to Lord Grenville his credentials as ambassador from the French republic; but on the 20th of the same month Lord Grenville sent him a letter refusing to receive his credentials, or to consider him in any other character than as one of the mass of foreigners resident in England; and on the 24th his lordship sent M. Chauvelin a passport for himself and his suite, declaring that, after the fatal death of his most Christian majesty, he could no longer be considered as holding any public character in Britain.

In consequence of this correspondence the French convention declared war against England and Holland on the first of February; three days previous to which Mr Secretary Dundas presented to the House of Commons a message from the king, announcing that copies of the papers now mentioned were laid before the house. It was added, that his majesty thought it necessary to make a further augmentation of his forces by sea and land; and that he relied upon the zeal of the House of Commons to enable him to take the most effectual measures for maintaining the security of his dominions, supporting his allies, and opposing the ambition of France, at all times dangerous, and peculiarly so when connected with the propagation of principles utterly subversive of the peace and order of civil society. And thus Britain became a party in the most sanguinary and eventful war that ever desolated Europe or afflicted humanity. In the month of April the French government made another attempt to enter into negotiations, and the minister, L. E. Brun, transmitted to England by a private gentleman letters to Lord Grenville, in which he requested passports for M. Maret to repair

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Reign of George III. to Britain in order to negotiate peace; but no public notice whatever was taken of the application.

Reign of George III. sibly held out to the world. It was for some time customary in Great Britain to dispute with great eagerness the question as to who were the aggressors in this war; and in such disputes the friends of administration laboured under considerable difficulties, in consequence of the narrow ground upon which government had thought fit to rest the grounds or causes of hostility. The French government had been willing to explain away the offensive decree of the 19th November; the question about the Scheldt they were prepared to give up; and their ignorance of the nature of the British constitution, and of the elements which influence it in practice, prevented them from entreating any idea that they were likely to encounter hostility from this country arising out of their revolution. Hence they not only neglected their navy, but had already in some measure ruined it, by sending their seamen to the frontiers in the character of soldiers. But though the French had not originally entertained hostile designs against this country, and though the ostensible causes of war on the part of Great Britain were weak, if not futile, it does not therefore follow that the motives which actually influenced the conduct of the British government on this occasion partook of the same character. France had been the ancient and dangerous enemy of England. She had suddenly fallen into a state of anarchy and consequent debility. All Europe was now leagued against her. Within she was divided by faction, and without she was assailed by immense hosts of the best disciplined soldiers in Europe, conducted by the most skilful leaders, to whom she had nothing to oppose but an undisciplined multitude, led on by inexperienced chiefs. In this state of things it seemed a safe measure to make war against her. To do so was only to retaliate the conduct she had herself pursued when she effected the dismemberment of the British empire, by assisting our revolted colonies. And the moment seemed to have arrived when, by dismembering France, she might be rendered for ever incapable of becoming dangerous to Britain.

CHAP. XVI.

REIGN OF GEORGE III.—WAR WITH FRANCE.

Remarks on the Causes of the War.—Doubts as to its necessity.

—Mr Pitt's absence from Parliament.—Debates on the French declaration of War.—Great failures in the Commercial world.—Mercantile Loan.—Government Loan.—Traitorous Correspondence Bill.—Parliamentary Reform.—Board of Agriculture instituted.—Relief of the Scottish Catholics.—Renewal of the East India Company's Charter.—Incidental Details.—Political Trials in Scotland.—Mr Muir and Mr Fyche Palmer convicted of sedition.—British Convention.—Foreign Treaties.—The War.—Defection of Dumouriez.—Favourable opportunity of making Peace lost.—Defective nature of the general plan of the War.—Opening of Parliament in 1794.—Debates on the Address.—Sources of Alarm.—Dread of Invasion, and of Plots and Conspiracies.—Secret Committee appointed.—Finance.—Policy of Prussia.—Maritime successes of Britain.—Victory of the 1st June 1794.—Continental Campaign.—Conquest of Holland by Fischeau.—Descent of the Allies by France.—Trials for Treason.—Acquittal of Hardie and Horne Tooke.—Trial of Watt and Downie.—Pop-gun Plot.—Meeting of Parliament.—Changes in the Cabinet.—Motion for entering into negotiations with France.—Mr Pitt's Amendment.—Duke of Bedford's Motion for Peace.—Mr Hastings' Trial concluded.—Death of the Prince of Wales.—His Marriage.—War with Holland.—Expedition to Quiberon Bay.—Campaign in Germany.—Riots at the Meeting of Parliament.—Two Gaggling Bills.—Pacific Message from the King.—Futile attempts at Negotiation.—Continental Campaign.—Martinez's Letter.—Lord Malmesbury's Negotiations.—Bank Restriction.—Supplies.—Loyalty Loan.—War with Spain.—Mutiny in the Fleet.—Maritime operations.—Duncan's Victory.—Preliminaries of Peace signed at Leoben between the Emperor and the French Republic.—Treaty of Campo Formido.—Meeting of Parliament and recession of the Opposition.—Relative situation of France and Britain.—Alarm of Invasion.—Defence Act.—Redemption of the Land-tax.—Navy Bill.—Duel between Mr Pitt and Mr Tierney.—Rebellion in Ireland.—Negotiations at Rastadt.—Switzerland seized by the French.—Importance of this country.—French Expedition to Egypt.—Battle of the Nile.—Its political results.—Russia joins the confederacy against France.—Minorca taken.—St Domingo abandoned.—Meeting of Parliament.—Income Tax.—Its Defects.—Union with Ireland proposed.—Fall of Tippeco's Rebellion.—Continental War.—Savary's brilliant Campaign in Italy.—Attempt to drive the French from Switzerland.—Russians defeated by Massena at Zurich.—Invasion of Holland by the British.—Bonaparte declared First Consul.—Meeting of Parliament.—King's Speech.—Letter of Bonaparte to King George III.—Lord Grenville's Answer.—M. Talleyrand's Reply.—Rejoinder of the British Minister.—Debates in Parliament on the subject of this Correspondence.—Union with Ireland effected.—Debates on this subject.—Discussion respecting the expedition to Holland.—Mr Dundas's defence of that enterprise.—War in the East.—Treaty of El Arish disavowed.—Events in Egypt.—Campaign on the Continent.—Bonaparte enters Italy by the Great St Bernard, at the head of the Army of Reserve.—Battle of Marengo.—Operations in Germany.—Battles of Schaffhausen, Mookirch, Hohenberg, Asperburg, and Heilsberg.—Continental truce.—Renewed.—Scarcity in Britain.—War with the Northern Powers.—Campaign in Germany.—Battle of Hohenlinden.—Peace of Lunenburg.—Change of Ministry and resignation of Mr Pitt.—Ostensible cause of Mr Pitt's retirement from office.—Probable real cause.—Character of his Administration.—New Ministry.—Royal indisposition.—Imperial Parliament.—Speech from the throne.—Debates on the Address.—Motion on the State of the Nation.—Conduct of the War defended by Mr Dundas.—Mr Pitt's account of the Change of Ministry.—Attack upon Copenhagen by Lord Nelson.—Death of the Emperor Paul.—Convention with Russia.—Naval engagement off the coast of Spain.—Attack on Boulogne.—Campaign in Egypt.—Death of Sir Ralph Abercromby.—Cairo taken.—Surrender of Alexandria.—Preliminaries of Peace.

In the quarrels of nations the real causes and motives of hostility are often very different from those which are ostensible.

But the most powerful incitements to this war undoubtedly arose from the example of political innovation, which it was so much the interest of every government in which there existed any mixture of hereditary authority, completely to defeat and overthrow. To comprehend the full force of this motive for going to war, it is necessary to recollect the ferment which universally prevailed in the minds of men, and to imagine the situation and the feelings of a prince, who, though still safe, yet saw in his immediate vicinity the first of European monarchs hurried from his throne to a prison, and from the prison to a scaffold, and his power assumed by subjects who represented their conduct as the triumph of reason and of freedom; while the contagion of their sentiments, extending itself into neighbouring kingdoms, threatened to break out into actions not less violent than those of the revolutionists of France. In such a state of things, and under the influence of such sentiments, a war against France seemed to be a war in defence of the whole arrangements of society; and princes and nobles considered themselves as engaged in the protection, not merely of their power and station, but even of their personal safety.

Still, however, there were not wanting at this time some individuals who thought the war altogether unnecessary for the support of the British constitution and government. The great amount of the national debt, the influence of the crown, and the general happiness and good feeling of the people at large, gave powerful assurances of stability to government and safety to property. Even before the war commenced, the crimes committed by the French revolutionists had greatly diminished the popularity of their cause; and the associations on the side of government

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It was therefore thought by many to be perfectly practicable to weather the storm without having recourse to hostilities; and there were even some who doubted the prudence of the war, notwithstanding the strength of the combination formed against France, and suspected, that in a sanguinary and desperate contest, armies conducted by princes, brought into power by the casualty of birth, might prove no match for French enthusiasm in the first instance, and far less ultimately for the superior tactics and enterprise which must speedily be introduced by men rising to command from the admiration produced by their talents and success. Lastly, if Great Britain, instead of assailing, had actively protected the independence of France, this would have secured such an ascendancy over her councils as might have enabled us to protect Holland, and to preserve the life, perhaps even the crown, of Louis XVI.; and, at all events, it would have placed us in a condition speedily to terminate the contest, without any important changes being suffered to take place in the relative strength of the continental states of Europe.

At the close of the year 1792 Mr Pitt did not attend parliament when it first assembled; nor did he make his appearance in the House of Commons till the alien bill was passing through its last stages in January, the discussion ended, and the relative strength of parties ascertained. The ostensible cause of his absence was, that having, on the death of the Earl of Guildford (Lord North), obtained the place of warden of the Cinque Ports, and thereby vacated his seat as a member of the House of Commons, he had gone down to Cambridge to secure his re-election. But the length of his absence suggested to some a suspicion that he was hesitating about engaging to support the court in its design of going to war; and in the mean time Mr Dundas stood forward in the House of Commons as the leading servant of the crown in support of the proposal for engaging in hostilities. On his return, however, Mr Pitt resumed his station in the debates of the house, and supported the measure with the utmost ardour. At this period Lord Thurlow was removed from the office of lord high chancellor, and succeeded by Lord Loughborough, who had originally owed his preferment to the support given by him to Lord North's administration and measures, and who, though hitherto an adherent of opposition, had in the recent debates defended the plans of administration.

On the occasion of a message from the king announcing the declaration of war by France, Mr Pitt stated that his majesty had always declined taking any part in regard to the internal government of France; that during the summer, while France was engaged in war with Austria and Prussia, he had in no way departed from his neutrality; but that as the French seemed now determined to subjugate other nations to their principles, he was under the necessity of interfering for the protection of his allies the Dutch, who had not indeed made any formal requisition for assistance, but to whose government the French had at all times been notoriously hostile. Mr Pitt also represented the language of the men in power in France as intolerably menacing towards the government of Britain, and as pre-eminently dangerous, from its tendency to introduce anarchy. He also adverted in strong terms to the death of the French king as a calamitous event; an outrage to every principle of religion, justice, and humanity; an act which, in this country and in the whole of Europe, had excited but one general sentiment of indignation and abhorrence, and could not fail to produce the same sentiments in every civilized nation. It was, he said, in all its circumstances, so full of grief and horror, that it must be a wish, in which all united, to tear it if possible

from their memories, to expunge it from the page of history, and to remove it for ever from the observation and comments of mankind. All the members who remained in opposition concurred in reprobating the conduct of the French revolutionists. Mr Fox, however, asserted, that the general maxim of policy was, that the crimes committed in one independent state could not be cognizable by another; he alleged that the topics adverted to by Mr Pitt were introduced into the debate to blind the judgment by exciting the passions; and he contended that the opening of the Scheldt, and the decree of the 19th of November, which were stated as the causes of the war, could never justify such a measure. He censured our past neutrality as unfair. While the French were invaded we remained quiet spectators; but on their becoming invaders in their turn, we said Europe was in danger, and interfered against them. He asserted that the real cause, always disavowed by our government, but ever kept in mind, was the internal government of France. The destruction of that government was the avowed object of the combined powers; but, though about to join them, we were ashamed to own that Britain was engaging to aid the restoration of despotism, and therefore the Scheldt and Holland were collusively had recourse to as pretexts. In the House of Lords, when the same subject was discussed, the Marquis of Lansdown contended, that, by sending an able and experienced minister to Paris, our government might have saved the life of Louis XVI. He declared that the war would be wanton on our part, and without provocation on the part of France; and he highly disapproved of the insulting manner in which M. Chauvelin had been dismissed.

At the period of which we are now treating, British commerce had become extremely extensive, and, owing to the commercial treaty, British and French merchants had become closely connected in their transactions. But from the sudden stagnation of trade which the war now produced, added to the alarms which had been excited upon political subjects, a sort of paralysis appeared to seize the country, and the number of bankruptcies exceeded all that had ever happened in the most calamitous times. A general stoppage of commercial credit took place, and no bank would venture to advance money to merchants or manufacturers; the consequence of which was, that many of them, with large quantities of goods in their possession, were unable to make the smallest payment. To apply a remedy to this alarming evil, several of the principal traders and merchants having waited upon Mr Pitt, requested the interference of government; and a select committee of the House of Commons was accordingly appointed to investigate the subject. After consulting with a variety of bankers, manufacturers, and merchants, the committee, on the 29th of April, gave in a report favourable to the solicitation of the merchants for relief; and a bill was introduced on the 1st of May, authorizing government to issue five millions by exchequer bills, in loans to such merchants and manufacturers as should deposit goods in security for the sum advanced. This measure proved extremely salutary. When it was found that the traders could obtain money from government, the bankers and other persons immediately evinced a willingness to advance them funds, or to give credit to their bills; trade gradually revived; and new channels were by degrees found out for the disposal of the productions of British industry.

On the 27th of March, Mr Pitt, in a committee of the House of Commons, stated, that he had borrowed for the service of the year the sum of £4,500,000. The terms of the loan were, that for every £.72 advanced to the public the lenders should be entitled to £.100 stock, bearing an interest of three per cent., which would make a capital of £6,210,000, the interest of which, to be paid by the pub-

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Reign of George III. lie, would amount to L.186,000 a year. But there was another charge attending the loan; for, by the act for appropriating a surplus million to a sinking fund, it was provided, that whenever a new loan should be made, a fund equal to one per cent. on the whole of it must be provided, and applied to the liquidation of the principal. This, therefore, required an annual charge of L.62,100, and made the whole, including interest, L.248,100 per annum.

On the 15th of March the attorney general brought forward a bill for preventing traitorous correspondence with the king's enemies. The object of this bill was to prohibit the sale to the French government or the French armies, of arms, military stores, provisions, or clothes, under the penalty of high treason. The purchase of lands in France was also prohibited. No one was allowed to go from Britain to France without a license, under the penalty of a misdemeanour; and persons, though subjects of this country, coming from France, were prohibited from entering the kingdom without a passport, or presenting to the master of the vessel a declaration that, in the mean time, they would not quit the place where they had landed without the permission of a justice of peace, or finding security for their good behaviour. Lastly, the insurance of vessels either coming from France or going thither was prohibited. And this bill passed through both houses, supported by great majorities.

During the present session a very great number of petitions were presented to the House of Commons from different parts of the country, praying for a reform in the representation; and on the 6th of May Mr Grey brought forward the question, after presenting a petition which had been framed by the association called the Friends of the People in London. He asserted that the number of petitions now brought forward demonstrated that the House of Commons were not the real representatives of the people, and he gave a detailed statement of the various defects in the representation. The proposal of reform was chiefly resisted on account of the hazard attending it from the example of France, and on account of the extent to which its more ardent partizans out of doors wished it to be carried. Mr Pitt explained his motives for being formerly friendly to a parliamentary reform, and also his objections against it at the present moment. If the principle of individual suffrage, pointed at in several of the petitions, was to be carried to its utmost extent, it would subvert the peerage and depose the king, and, in fine, extinguish every hereditary distinction and privileged order, and establish that system of equalizing anarchy announced in the code of French legislation, and attested in the blood shed in the massacres at Paris. Mr Fox, on the contrary, represented in strong terms the inconsistency of Mr Pitt's present conduct with his former professions. As to the time of attempting a reform, he said, it had been proposed at all periods, in war and in peace; but they had all been represented as improper. The present was not a more dangerous period than the year 1782, when Mr Pitt himself had brought forward a similar proposal. These dangers he ascribed to the councils, generally unwise, and often wicked, by which the country had recently been governed. Mr Grey's motion was rejected upon a division by a majority of two hundred and eighty-two against forty-one.

During the present session several popular measures were adopted. On the recommendation of Sir John Sinclair, L.3000 per annum was voted by the House of Commons for the establishment of a board of agriculture; an institution which has been the means of collecting and conveying to the public much useful information respecting the most valuable of all arts. On a motion by the lord advocate of Scotland, Mr Robert Dundas, a bill was

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At this period the exclusive charter of the East India Company being within a year of its expiration, that body presented a petition for a renewal of it; and on the 23d of April the subject was considered in the House of Commons. Mr Dundas observed that the proposal which he was about to make of a renewal of the charter was undoubtedly attended with difficulties. No writer upon political economy had as yet supposed that an extensive empire could be administered by a commercial association; and no writer on commerce had thought that trade ought to be shackled with exclusive privileges. In deviating from these principles, which had been admitted and admired, he was sensible that his opinions had popular prejudices against them; but he was supported by successful experience; and when the house adverted to the peculiarities of the subject before them, they would at once see that he was not attempting to overturn theories, though he was unwilling to recede from old and established practice. It would be idle, and a proof of ignorance, to maintain that all the advantages which Great Britain possessed from its connection with India arose out of the present exclusive privilege of the Company; but it would be impossible to say what might be the political or commercial effects of a deviation from the present system. He then stated, that the shipping employed by the East India Company amounted to eighty-one thousand tons; that the seamen navigating those ships were about seven thousand men, who had constant employment; that the raw materials imported from India for the use of home manufactures amounted annually to about L.700,000; that the annual exports of British produce and manufacture to India and China in the Company's ships amounted to upwards of a million and a half sterling; and that great difficulties would attend any alteration of the present system of government in India, especially from the effects which the innovation might produce on the minds of the natives. He therefore proposed a variety of resolutions, the most material of which was, that it appeared fit and proper to continue to the East India Company their exclusive trade, within the limits now enjoyed by them, for a further term of twenty years, to be computed from the 1st of March 1794, but liable to be discontinued at the end of such a period, if three years' notice should previously be given by parliament. The resolutions proposed by Mr Dundas having been carried, a bill for renewing the East India Company's charter was brought in, and passed through both houses with little opposition. The trial of Mr Hastings still proceeded, though very slowly. It was now totally disregarded by the public.

During this year government sought to strengthen itself by erecting barracks in the vicinity of the great towns, in order that, by residing apart from the citizens, the soldiers might be removed beyond the contagion of popular opinions. But a considerable degree of political fermentation still prevailed in the minds of the people. In Eng-

Reign of George III. land, a bookseller was prosecuted, and punished with imprisonment, for selling the second part of Paine's *Rights of Man*; and one or two individuals of humble rank were committed for seditious publications. In Scotland the public attention was much excited by the prosecution of two gentlemen, Mr Thomas Muir of Hunter's Hill, a member of the faculty of advocates; and Mr Fysche Palmer, a member of the university of Cambridge, who officiated as unitarian minister at Dundee. Mr Muir had been extremely active during the autumn of the preceding year, when the political agitation was at its height, in promoting associations in Glasgow and its neighbourhood, for the purpose of procuring a reform of the representation in the House of Commons. In point of talents he was not above mediocrity, but he possessed the faculty of unpremeditated elocution in a surprising degree, and appeared to be actuated by the vanity of haranguing without end, which the daily meetings of these societies afforded him an opportunity of gratifying. In other respects he was not formidable, possessing little knowledge of the world, and still less discernment of the human character. He injured the cause which he meant to promote, by collecting assemblages of people, first at Glasgow, and afterwards at Edinburgh, and thus creating an appearance of disorder and turbulence, which alarmed the government, and intimidated persons who were otherwise disposed to favour the political sentiments which he professed. Mr Palmer was a man of eminent literary talents, and attended political societies, but without making any remarkable efforts to distinguish himself in these assemblages. He was tried before the circuit court of judicature at Perth, on the 17th of September, some months after Mr Muir's conviction at Edinburgh, and found guilty of publishing a political libel, which had been written by some other person, but which he had corrected and ordered to be printed. Both of these gentlemen were sentenced to transportation, Mr Muir for fourteen, and Mr Palmer for seven years; and they were accordingly shipped off, among common felons, for Botany Bay. The disproportionate severity of these sentences excited general sympathy, and produced considerable discussion. The crime of which they were convicted was that of sedition or leasing-making, which by the law of Scotland is punishable by fine, imprisonment, or banishment; but as it is a rule in law, that penal statutes are to be strictly interpreted, it was doubted how far the punishment of transportation could be inflicted under a statute which points out, in general terms, banishment as the punishment of the offence. Not intimidated by these trials, a few persons of no public or political importance whatever met at Edinburgh in the month of November, and thought fit to call themselves a British Convention. They mimicked the proceedings of the French national convention as closely as possible, saluting each other with the title of citizen, holding public sittings, admitting strangers to the honours of the sittings, and mingling the solemn with the ludicrous in a singular style. At any other period their conduct would have excited nothing but ridicule; at this time it was considered in another light, for some of the members were brought to trial, and punished with the same severity which had been exercised towards Messrs Muir and Palmer.

To promote the success of the war, a convention had been concluded in the spring between our court and that of Petersburg, stipulating for the prosecution of hostilities till the French relinquished all their conquests. A treaty was soon afterwards entered into with the landgrave of Hesse Cassel, for a subsidiary body of eight thousand men, which, by a subsequent agreement, was extended to twelve thousand; and the king of Sardinia engaged, for £200,000 per annum, to keep up an army of fifty thousand men, to be employed in the particular defence of his dominions, and

in general service against the enemy. Compacts of alliance were also adjusted with Spain, Naples, Prussia, Austria, and Portugal; and besides the stipulation of vigorous hostility, it was agreed that the conduct of other powers should be watched with extraordinary circumspection, lest they should abuse their professed neutrality by protecting the commerce or property of the French.

The detail of the military transactions of this eventful contest will be given under another head. But we may observe here, that during the present campaign the independence of France seemed at one time to be in considerable hazard. The faction which had overturned the monarchy, assembled a convention of national representatives, and endeavoured to establish a republican form of government, soon divided itself into two parties, those of the Gironde and the Mountain. The leading party, when the republic was first proclaimed, consisted chiefly of men of letters, who were led by speculative considerations to expect a wonderful amelioration of the human character, and of the state of society, from the changes they were producing. They wished to avoid sanguinary measures at home, and to restore tranquillity to their country as speedily as possible; but being equally deficient in energy and in knowledge of the character of their countrymen, they were successfully opposed by a turbulent and ferocious minority, led by Robespierre, Danton, and other men of the most unprincipled and sanguinary temper. The moderate and ruling party were also deceived by many of those whom they had employed; and at last their favourite commander, Dumouriez, having been repulsed in the Netherlands by the united forces of Austria, Prussia, and England, entered into a negotiation with these powers for the restoration of monarchy in France. But the treacherous project was rendered abortive by the fidelity of his army, which almost to a man deserted their general, and refused to bring the independence of their country into hazard by allowing foreign armies to interfere in the arrangement of its internal government. The defection of Dumouriez, together with the repulse of their armies, brought the moderate party, which still ruled in the French convention, into great difficulties; and it is an unfortunate circumstance that the British government did not then seize the opportunity of making peace with them. The hazard of innovation was now past. One of the maxims of the first French republicans was the love of peace and hatred of war; and the unsuccessful issue of the attempt made to penetrate into other countries must have added force to this sentiment. The tranquillity of Europe might thus have been insured; a mild party would have been preserved in power; Great Britain might have obtained an influence over their councils; and the sanguinary scenes which afterwards occurred in the interior of France, and upon the frontiers, might have been prevented. But this opportunity was unhappily disregarded; and from the distraction within, and the immense combination of force assailing France from without, the complete subjugation of that country was confidently anticipated. Meanwhile the failure of the military operations of the Girondists encouraged the wild party to attempt the overthrow of the more moderate French republicans, by exciting an insurrection of the populace in Paris; an attempt which unhappily proved too successful. The national representatives were subdued, ninety members of the convention were imprisoned, and the minority were enabled to convert themselves into an apparent majority. By this event all France was thrown into confusion. The authority of the convention, thus impaired, was utterly rejected by the south of France; and the town and harbour of Toulon, with its fleet and stores, were surrendered by negotiation to the British admiral, Lord Hood, as trustee for the next heir of the monarchy. In the western parts of

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France the standard of royalty was reared, and joined by immense multitudes, who adhered to it with the most obstinate bravery, and were not subdued till after a greater expenditure of blood than was found necessary for the repulse of the combined armies of Europe.

On the part of Britain the general plan of the war does not seem to have been well contrived or properly carried into effect. A great part of the western coast of France was in full possession of the royalists, whilst the British navy at the same time commanded the ocean. It would therefore have been comparatively an easy enterprise to land an army on the French coast for the assistance of the royalists, and to advance through an open country, destitute of fortified towns, to the capital, and against a convention whose authority was scarcely acknowledged by a third part of the nation. Instead of this, the combined armies were directed against the French Netherlands, where they wasted the summer, as well as their own strength, in the siege of a few of the fortresses which defend that frontier; and thus the attack upon France was made upon its strongest side, at a distance from the centre of its power, and where the means of protracted resistance were the greatest; whilst leisure was afforded to the convention to establish its authority, to call out immense levies for the defence of the country, and before the close of the year to turn the tide of success in its favour. Toulon was retaken under the mastery direction of Bonaparte, who then first appeared on the revolutionary stage; and the Spaniards were beaten in the south; whilst, on the northern frontier, the British army was repulsed before Dunkirk, and the commander in chief of the allies, the prince of Cobourg, before Maubeuge. The Duke of Brunswick and General Wurmser were also driven across the Upper Rhine near Mentz, in the last two weeks of the year, after a succession of sanguinary conflicts, in which the French, by daily bringing forward fresh troops, at last succeeded with their raw levies in wearing down the strength and the courage of their veteran enemies.

The British parliament assembled on the first of January 1794. In the speech from the throne his majesty called the attention of the two houses to the issue of the war, "on which depended the support of our constitution, laws, and religion, and the security of all civil society;" to the advantages which had attended our arms both by sea and land; and to the expectation of ultimate success, founded on the circumstance that the efforts of the enemy, proceeding on an arbitrary system, which enabled them unjustly to dispose of the lives and properties of the people, must eventually introduce internal discontent and confusion. His majesty further stated the impossibility of making peace consistently with the permanent safety of the country, and the tranquillity of other nations; he noticed the treaties and conventions into which he had entered with foreign powers; and he mentioned the general loyalty which prevailed amongst all ranks, notwithstanding continued efforts to mislead and seduce the people.

As usual, the topics introduced into the king's speech became the subject of debate, both in the House of Lords and in the House of Commons; but they excited little attention throughout the nation. Men of property were generally so much alarmed by the events which had occurred in France, that they reposed implicit confidence in the government; and as administration seemed resolved not to despair of success, they derived great support from the approbation of the public. A minority, indeed, existed throughout the country, by whom the war was openly disapproved of; but as they consisted in general of persons of little influence, they were unable seriously to embarrass the measures of administration. When the king's speech was taken into consideration, Lord Wycombe moved an amendment to the address, recommending pacific

measures. But Lord Mornington, on the other hand, contended that the alternative of war or peace did not at present exist. Before we could relinquish the principles on which the war had commenced, proof was necessary, either that the opinions which we had conceived of the views of France were erroneous, that the war had become desperate and impracticable, or that, from some improvement in the system and principles of the French, the necessity which had prompted us to commence the war no longer existed. Nothing of this sort had occurred. France entertained unlimited views of aggrandizement and ambition, connected with principles subversive of all regular government. Mr Sheridan entirely dissented from these views, and affirmed that Britain had acted with as little regard to the independence of neutral states as the French; that she had endeavoured to compel Genoa, Switzerland, and Tuscany, to join the confederacy against France, by the most insulting menaces; and that, as far as prudence would permit, she had assumed the same language towards Sweden and Denmark. If the French system of fraternization with other nations who wished to overturn their own internal government formed a just cause of war, their dereliction of that system ought to be a reason for making peace. He denied that the French were the original aggressors. I am astonished, said he, that the minister who sits near the Noble Lord does not himself feel it necessary to his own dignity to oppose this paltry argument of the act of aggression having come from them, instead of leaving that task to us, to whom comparatively the fact is indifferent. When he hears this called a war of necessity and defence, I wonder he does not feel ashamed of the meanness which it spreads over the whole of his cause, and the contradiction which it throws among the greater part of his arguments. Will he meet the matter fairly? Will he answer this one question distinctly? If France had abstained from any act of aggression against Great Britain and her ally Holland, should we have remained inactive spectators of the last campaign, idle, apart, and listening to the fray, and left the contest to Austria and Prussia, and whatever allies they could themselves have obtained? Does he then mean to say that he would have sat still; that Great Britain would have sat still with arms folded, and reclining with luxurious ease on her commercial couch, have remained an unconcerned spectator of this mighty conflict, and have left the cause of civil order, government, morality, and religion, and its God, to take care of itself, or to owe its preservation to the mercenary exertions of German and Hungarian barbarians; provided only that France had not implicated Great Britain by a special offence, and forced us into this cause of divine and universal interest by the petty motive of a personal provocation? Mr Sheridan admitted that enormities had been committed in France, which disgusted and sickened the soul. This was most true; but what relation had these to England? And if they had, what did it prove? What, but the eternal and unalterable truth, that a long-established despotism had so far degraded and dehumanized human nature, as to render its subjects, on the first recovery of their rights, unfit for the exercise of them? That we and all the powers of Europe had reason to dread the madness of the French, he agreed; but was this difficulty not to be accounted for? Wild and unsettled as they must necessarily be from the possession of such power, the surrounding states had goaded them into a paroxysm of madness, fury, and desperation. We called them monsters, and hunted them as monsters. The conspiracy of Pílnitz, and the brutal threats of the abettors of that plot, had to answer for all the additional horrors that had since disgraced humanity. We had covenanted for their extermination, and now complained that they turned upon

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us with the fury which we had inspired. No reasonable hope of success existed upon which we ought to proceed. What was the state of our allies when we entered into the confederacy? The force of Austria unbroken, though compelled to abandon Brabant, and the power of the veteran troops of Prussia absolutely untired, though the seasons and disease had induced them to retire from Champagne. What was their state now? Defeat had thinned their ranks, and disgrace had broken their spirit. They had been driven across the Rhine by French recruits, like sheep before a lion's whelp, and that not after the mishap of a single great action lost, but after a succession of bloody contests of unprecedented fury and obstinacy. Where now was the scientific confidence with which we were taught to regard the efforts of discipline and experience, when opposed to an untrained multitude and unpractised generals? The jargon of professional pedantry was mute, and the plain sense of man was left to its own course. Mr Windham combated the opinion, that the enormities committed in France were the effects of the war. Mr Dundas defended the management of the war, and the activity which had been employed by government in conducting it. Our seamen in the beginning of the year were only fifteen thousand; in the course of the war fifty-four thousand men had been added. At the commencement of the war we had only thirteen ships of the line and thirty frigates fit for service; at the present time we had eighty ships of the line and a hundred frigates in actual employment, which, with the armed vessels now in the service of the public, made the whole above three hundred sail. In augmenting the army, the most effectual and economical system had been pursued; besides the militia, thirty thousand men had been added to the army. Mr Fox repeated that we were the aggressors in the war; contended that every state had a full right to regulate its internal government; and asserted, that the manifesto of the Duke of Brunswick had occasioned all the excesses of the French. He denied that the prodigal manner in which the French government conducted their affairs, and the confusion and ruin into which their finances were hastening, afforded any prospect of success to the allied powers. He remembered, that during the American war there was much talk of a vagrant congress, which was nowhere to be found, of their miserable resources, and their wretched paper money at three hundred per cent. discount, of which, with any few halfpence you had in your pocket, you might purchase to the amount of a hundred dollars. The Americans were represented as exercising on each other the most intolerable tyranny, on the royalists the most unheard-of cruelty; and it was then said, that if such principles were suffered to exist, if the cause of America were ultimately successful, there was an end of all civilised government, and England must be trodden in the dust. Yet then, said this statesman, I recommended negotiation, and lived to see Great Britain treat with that very congress so often vilified and abused, and the monarchy remain in sufficient vigour. Mr Pitt recapitulated the arguments formerly employed to prove that the aggression had certainly taken place on the part of France. The system adopted by the French, their usurpation of foreign territory, their hostile intentions against Holland, and their unprecedented views of aggrandisement and ambition, were subversive of all regular government; and unless it could be proved that we had mistaken these principles, we were bound to continue the war, even supposing that difficulty and disappointment had occurred in the prosecution of it. He conceived there was not the least probability of the continuance of the present government of France. The efforts of the people had been merely the result of terror, and were supported by desperate resources, which could not possibly continue.

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He admitted that a safe and advantageous peace ought to be concluded, as soon as it could possibly be obtained; but the security and benefits of peace with France must depend upon the establishment of a government essentially different from the present. After a lengthened discussion, the address was carried by an overwhelming majority. In the House of Lords a similar debate took place, and similar arguments and views were respectively urged by the adverse parties; but ultimately the address was carried by a majority as decisive as that in the Commons.

It is one of the characteristics of the British nation, to be at all times easily thrown into a state of anxiety and alarm, by any object which government for the time thinks fit to represent as dangerous. The two greatest objects of political terror to Englishmen have at all times been the fear of a foreign invasion, and the dread of secret conspiracies by a disaffected party. During many ages Britain has not been successfully invaded; and, since the time of the Spanish Armada, no such attempt has been made by any of those governments with which Britain has engaged in hostility; but this circumstance, which leads reflecting persons to regard such a project as extremely unlikely to occur, seems to produce a contrary effect upon the people at large. The evils attending invasion having never been felt, lay hold of their imaginations, in the wildest and most exaggerated forms; and from the terror thus produced, they are prevented from reflecting upon the difficulties attending the project, which deterred Louis XIV. from attempting it while in the height of his power, and with the advantage of a disputed succession to the crown. Yet such is the credulity of the British nation upon this head, that administration can at any time throw them into a state of the utmost consternation, by expressing an apprehension of a French invasion; and from this apprehension ministers usually derive very considerable advantages. The voice of fiction is for a time silenced by patriotic terror, and all parties hasten to arrange themselves under the banners of government for the defence of their country. The dread of plots and conspiracies produces effects somewhat similar. It is true that no conspiracy of Englishmen was ever productive of danger to the government whilst it remained even tolerably popular; but this never prevents the nation from being thrown into consternation, by intimations, on the part of government, that some desperate conspiracy is secretly carrying on, and ready to burst forth, to the utter destruction of the public tranquillity.

During the war of which we are now treating, Mr Pitt's administration derived incredible strength from these two sources of terror; the fear of invasion, and the dread of conspiracies by disaffected persons. Nor did he want skill to profit by them. At the commencement of the war it had been believed by most persons, and perhaps by government, that it would be of short duration, the state of anarchy which succeeded the overthrow of the monarchy in France seemed to render that country an easy prey to the powerful armies by which it was invaded; and when any doubt of success was expressed, it was answered, that after making trial of the war for a year, we might desist in case we were unsuccessful. But although the original state of affairs had been considerably altered by the successes of the French, yet the British government still resolved to persist in the war, which, however, was now daily becoming less popular. On the other hand, the French leaders were greatly irritated by the persevering hostility of the British ministry, and in the pride of victory menaced England with invasion. It is evident that they had still too much business upon their hands on the Continent to be able to make the slightest attempt to carry their threats into execution; but the British administration, taking advantage

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of the threat, expressed their fears that it might be successful; and proposed the arming of associations of volunteers, both cavalry and infantry, throughout the island, for the defence of the nation against foreign invasion, and the efforts of disaffected persons at home. They also encouraged the raising of subscriptions to defray the expense of these armed associations; and although the measure was disapproved by the minority in parliament, as an unconstitutional mode of raising money, it was supported by the majority. An act was passed authorizing the embodying and training of volunteers, and the measure was carried to a considerable extent throughout the country. In like manner, though the political ferment occasioned by the French revolution had now considerably subsided, administration, aware of the strength derived from keeping the country in a state of anxiety upon political subjects, announced to parliament, by a royal message, that seditious practices had been carried on by certain societies in London, with a view to overturn the constitution, and introduce the system of anarchy which prevailed in France; and that their papers had been seized, and were submitted to the consideration of the house. On the same day Thomas Hardie, a shoemaker in Piccadilly, who had acted as secretary to the London Corresponding Society, and Daniel Adams, the secretary to the Society for Constitutional Information, were apprehended for treasonable practices, upon a warrant from Mr Dundas. Mr Horne Tooke, well known for his ingenious philosophical writings, as well as for the political part he had formerly acted in the turbulent days of Wilkes, the Reverend Mr Jeremiah Joyce, Mr Holcroft a dramatic writer, Mr Kyd a barrister, and Mr John Thelwall, who had for some time entertained the town in the character of political lecturer, were also in a few days arrested and committed to the Tower on a charge of high treason.

For the sake of giving solemnity to the inquiries made into this conspiracy, a secret committee of the House of Commons was chosen by ballot, the members of which were the friends of the minister. The report of the committee concerning the alleged conspiracy amounted to little more than a recital of a number of advertisements from societies, or accounts of their debates, which had previously been inserted in the public newspapers; but it served as a pretext for suspending the Habeas Corpus act, and thereby enabling ministers to prevent any political movement, or avowed disapprobation of their measures, from being rashly exhibited out of parliament. In the meanwhile the dread of invasion, added to the political alarm which had previously diffused itself throughout the country, and which was thus artfully maintained, conferred upon ministers a degree of strength which, for a century and more, no British administration had possessed. Almost all men of property were their adherents; whilst their antagonists sunk into utter discredit, and suffered a species of persecution in every department of society; so that it became dangerous to a man's prospects in the world, and in ordinary business, to express the slightest doubt of the propriety of any measure approved by government.

In the early part of his administration, Mr Pitt had endeavoured to rest his reputation, in a considerable degree, upon the improvement of the finances, and the hope which he held out of paying off the national debt. He now deserted all such views; and taking advantage of the uncontrolled power he possessed at home, and the pliability of parliament, he engaged in a career of unexampled expenditure, in corrupting successive parties in France, or in the management of the war.

From its first rise to eminence as a European power, Prussia considered France as its protector against the ambition of Austria. During the present year, notwithstanding

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the resistance of a party in Poland, headed by the brave Kosciuszko, that country was partitioned, and Prussia obtained an ample share of its territory. But the partition of France was an object from which Prussia had every thing to fear, as it would destroy the only power by which Austria, the inveterate enemy of Prussia, had at all times been kept in awe. When the Prussian monarch found it necessary, in conjunction with his allies, to invade France in 1792, he retired upon the first appearance of a tolerably firm opposition, and gave the republic a respite of another winter, during which to arrange its strength, and call into action its resources. In the year 1793 the Prussians remained extremely inactive till towards the close of the campaign, when at last, in consequence of repeated remonstrances from their allies, they advanced against Alsace; but being there repulsed, and the republic beginning to exhibit on all sides a firm military front, the king of Prussia declared that the expenses of the war were more than his finances could sustain, and required the other German states to supply him with money, threatening in case of refusal to abandon the common cause; and on their declining to comply with his demands, he actually began to withdraw his troops. But by this time the British ministry had engaged in the war with a degree of eagerness which induced them to make every sacrifice to obtain success; and therefore, to avoid losing the assistance of Prussia, they offered a subsidy, which was finally adjusted, upon the condition that his Prussian majesty was to furnish sixty-two thousand troops, or thirty thousand beyond his contingent; for which his Britannic majesty was to pay him L.50,000 a month, L.100,000 a month for forage, L.400,000 to put the army in motion, and L.100,000 on their return, or in all, for the remaining nine months of the year, L.1,350,000. At this rate the expense of the whole year would amount to L.1,800,000, of which the states general were to pay L.400,000; and the forces thus subsidized were to be commanded by an officer to be named by the king of Prussia. By this treaty the king of Prussia was enabled to keep his army upon the war establishment with little additional expense to himself, and with the power of claiming a share of whatever conquests were made from France; whilst, by retaining the appointment of the general of the subsidized army, he preserved a complete command over it, and might prevent his troops from being worn out by active service, or restrain them from doing greater injury to the French republic than he should judge prudent or expedient in the circumstances.

All Europe looked forward with great anxiety to the approaching campaign as decisive of the contest; in which its whole powers, excepting Russia, Sweden, and Denmark, were actively engaged. At sea, where her strength could be most effectually exerted, Great Britain was eminently successful. An expedition under Sir Charles Grey and Sir John Jervis was sent to the West Indies, where Martinique, St Lucie, and other islands, were taken. In the Mediterranean the French were driven from the island of Corsica, and the inhabitants acknowledged the king of Great Britain as their sovereign. But the most signal victory was that gained by Lord Howe over the French fleet on the first of June near Brest. During the first years of the revolution France had suffered much distress from a scarcity of grain; and such was the inveteracy with which the present war was conducted, that the British government had formed a plan of subduing that nation by famine, by preventing their obtaining supplies of provisions from any foreign country. In their distress the French rulers had applied for assistance to the United States of America, which still owed a considerable debt to France, contracted during the war by which their own re-

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resolution had been accomplished; and they now offered to accept payment of this debt in corn, a commodity abounding in America. The Americans, accordingly, delivered the grain in their own ports, and a hundred and sixty sail of vessels laden with grain set out for France. As soon as this became known, Lord Howe was dispatched, in order, if possible, to intercept this valuable convoy; while the French admiral, Villaret-Joyeuse, sailed from Brest to hazard an engagement with the British fleet, for the sake of preserving the convoy. The force of the hostile fleets was nearly equal, the British having twenty-six, and the French twenty-five sail of the line; but the French line was broken, and, after an obstinate engagement, six of their ships were taken, and two sunk. Before the battle, however, the French admiral had detached a considerable force for the protection of the convoy, which was thus enabled with safety to reach its destined port. This victory produced very great exultation in Britain; and the fear of invasion which had been previously excited was abated by so decided a proof of naval superiority.

On the part of the French, however, these colonial and naval losses were greatly overbalanced by the general result of the campaign. The allies still concentrated their principal force against the Netherlands, and with that view, at the commencement of the campaign besieged and took Landrecies; but the fortune of the war was speedily changed. General Pichegru advanced into maritime Flanders, and in a variety of engagements defeated Count Clairfayt, an Austrian general of great activity, who ruined his army by incessant and sanguinary efforts to drive back a superior enemy. An attempt made by the grand army to cut off the retreat of Pichegru proved unsuccessful; and the latter having in turn manoeuvred to intercept the communication of the Imperialists with their magazines at Ghent, was in like manner repulsed; but the obstinate conflict which he maintained, and the steady fire of his troops, during a succession of conflicts, which lasted from daybreak till sunset, convinced the allied armies that the invasion of France had become a hopeless project. At last the French advanced, under General Jourdan, from the eastward, and at Fleurus gained a victory which cost the Austrians nearly fifteen thousand of their best troops. Mutual disgust, as well as discouragement, now prevailed among the allies. The Austrians retreated, leaving the Duke of York at the head of the British and Hanoverian forces in considerable peril; but, with the assistance of the Earl of Moira, his royal highness made good his retreat. This nobleman, who had distinguished himself in the American war, was opposed to the present war, which he had reprobated in his place in parliament. But having nevertheless been sent by administration with a feeble armament to assist the royalists on the western coast of France, and finding himself too weak to effect any thing of importance in that quarter, he had brought back his troops; and was afterwards sent with them to defend Ostend, where, learning the difficult nature of the Duke of York's situation, and perceiving that Ostend could not long be protected after the rest of Flanders had been deserted, he marched across the country, and in the face of much danger, and under great hardships, effected a junction with the principal British army, to which this reinforcement afforded seasonable aid.

The French were no less successful on the Upper Rhine, and on the frontiers of Italy and of Spain. At the end of the campaign, an intense frost having set in, they reinforced their armies, and Pichegru invaded Holland. After a variety of engagements the British and Hanoverians, together with some Austrian auxiliaries, whom Britain had subsidised, were repulsed, and found it necessary to abandon Holland to its fate. Many Dutch families sought

refuge in Britain. When Utrecht had submitted to the enemy, the stadtholder, knowing that Amsterdam would not be defended, left his country, and escaped in a fishing-boat to England, where he and his family became immediate objects of royal liberality, and were treated with the respect due to their rank and misfortunes. The Dutch, who had viewed the English with a very unfriendly eye since the revolution of 1787, appeared to be highly pleased with this change in their affairs. They had treated our soldiers with great illiberality, and refused to alleviate by kindness or compassion the sufferings of the wounded, or the distress of the fugitives, who at length effected their retreat to Bremen, after a long and severe trial of their patience and fortitude. The United Provinces were now revolutionized on the French model. Liberty, equality, and the rights of man, were proclaimed; representatives of the people were chosen; and the regenerated state was named the Batavian Republic. But the pretended friends of the Hollanders, in rescuing them from what they termed a disgraceful yoke, did not suffer them to enjoy real freedom or independence.

The result of these successes was, that the king of Prussia perceiving France restored to more than her ancient energy, and capable of humbling his enemy and her ancient rival, the house of Austria, deserted the coalition, refused to accept of any further subsidy from Britain, and took under his protection, as neutral states, the whole princes of the north-west of Germany; thus becoming the ostensible head and guardian of a large division of the empire, which was enabled to recover its tranquillity, and to become a calm spectator of the prolonged contest, which the rest of the empire under Austria continued to carry on against France. Spain was also under the necessity of imitating the example of Prussia, though upon less favourable terms, being constrained to relinquish, as the price of peace, her half of the island of St Domingo; and the Duke of Tuscany also deserted a contest in which he had reluctantly engaged.

In the meanwhile administration pursued their system of alarming the friends of internal tranquillity, by the dread of conspiracies and attempts against the constitution. The persons who in the month of May had been imprisoned on a charge of high treason were brought to trial in the end of October. The first was Thomas Hardie. His indictment stated nine overt acts of high treason; first, forming an intention of exciting rebellion and insurrection, and conspiring to subvert the government and depose the king; secondly, writing various books, pamphlets, letters, and addresses, recommending delegates to a convention; thirdly, consulting as to the means of forming such a convention; fourthly, agreeing to form themselves into a society for the purposes aforesaid; fifthly, causing arms to be made in order to subvert the government and depose the king; sixthly, conspiring to levy war within the realm; seventhly, conspiring to aid the king's enemies; eighthly, composing and publishing certain books, pamphlets, letters, exhortations, and addresses, for the purposes aforesaid; and, lastly, procuring arms for the purpose of levying war against the king, and exciting rebellion and insurrection. The written evidence consisted chiefly of advertisements and addresses, published in the newspapers, many of which were expressed in a very intemperate style; and of the proceedings of the societies, which were all public. With regard to the alleged charge about arming the people, it appears to rest upon no solid foundation; and the accusation and defence, therefore, turned chiefly upon the question of treasonable intention upon the part of the accused and his associates. Hardie was ably defended by the Honourable Thomas Erskine and Mr Vicary Gibbs, and the prosecution was conducted

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by the attorney and solicitor general; but after the proceedings had been protracted to the eighth day, the jury, after some deliberation, brought in a verdict of not guilty. The next trial was that of Mr Horne Tooke, who endeavoured to prove that he had merely followed the example of Mr Pitt, in recommending a plan of parliamentary reform. The minister was examined on the occasion, chiefly regarding the proceedings of the popular party, before the close of the American war, with a view to establish this point; but he evaded most of the questions by alleging a want of recollection. The acquittal of Mr Tooke was followed by that of Mr Thelwall; and a despair of convicting any one of the supposed traitors led to the abandonment of the other indictments.

As the war was becoming unpopular, the acquittal of these persons, which tended to discredit the alarms set up by the friends of administration, was felt by them as an additional misfortune. Had the indictments been laid for sedition only, the prosecutions would probably have proved successful; but ministers were led to carry matters the length of an accusation of treason, by their success in a similar charge at Edinburgh in the preceding month of September, against two persons named Robert Watt and David Downie. Watt had been a spy, employed by government to attend political societies, and discover the designs of the leaders; but as he was a needy person, and had been unable to communicate intelligence of much importance, he had received little pay. To earn more money, he thought fit to contrive a plot, which he communicated to Downie and some others, for seizing the castle and the public offices at Edinburgh, with a view no doubt of afterwards holding out his associates to government as criminals. Neither he nor they had any means of carrying such a plan into effect. But Watt having procured some pikes, deposited them in a cellar in his own house, where they were accidentally discovered; the spy was apprehended; and the persons to whom he had communicated his plan having come forward as witnesses against him and Downie, they were both found guilty of high treason. Downie, who had done little more than appear to approve of Watt's plan, was recommended to mercy, and afterwards pardoned; but Watt was executed.

Another source of encouragement to proceed with measures of severity arose at this time out of a plot brought to light by some informers, and by way of ridicule termed the Pop-gun Plot. The persons implicated in this charge were, John Peter Le Maitre, a native of Jersey, and apprentice to a watch-case-maker in Denmark Street, St Giles; William Higgins, apprentice to a chemist in Fleet-market; and a man of the name of Smith, who kept a book stall in the neighbourhood of Lincoln's-inn. Their accuser was one Upton, an apprentice or journeyman to a watch-maker. Le Maitre, Higgins, and Smith, were apprehended on Saturday the 27th of September, by a warrant from the Duke of Portland, as secretary of state, and examined on Sunday the 28th, before the privy-council, the lords of which were summoned again to attend on Tuesday upon the same important business. The charge, supported by the testimony of Upton, bore in substance, that an instrument was to have been constructed by the informer Upton, in the form of a walking stick, in which was to have been inserted a brass tube of two feet long; that through this tube a poisoned dart or arrow was to have been blown by the breath of the conspirator Le Maitre at his majesty, either on the terrace at Windsor, or in the playhouse; and that the poison was to have been of so subtle a nature, that if the point but glanced upon the king, it would produce instantaneous death. Nothing short of the most consummate ignorance of the state of human science could, on any ordinary occasion, have procured a moment's at-

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tention to so ridiculous a story as this; but such is the well-known credulity of the English nation regarding political dangers, that administration and their friends appear to have regarded this plot as an affair of some importance.

Parliament assembled on the 30th of December. In the speech from the throne his majesty urged the necessity of persisting in the war, however unfortunate it had been; and noticed the rapid decay of the resources of the enemy. The Dutch had, he observed, from a sense of present difficulties, entered into a negotiation for peace with the prevailing party in France; but no established government could derive security from such a negotiation. The most effectual means had therefore been employed for the further augmentation of the forces, on whose valour, as well as on the public spirit of the people, he placed the utmost reliance. This speech also mentioned the accession of the sovereignty of Corsica to the British dominions; a treaty of amity and commerce with America; and the conclusion of a treaty of marriage between the Prince of Wales and the Princess Caroline of Brunswick.

When an address to his majesty in similar terms with the speech was moved in common form, very animated debates took place in both houses of parliament. The war was attacked and defended upon the usual grounds, with this additional circumstance, that the events of the late campaign gave considerable countenance to the assertions of opposition, that all hope of ultimate success was irrational. Administration, however, were no less powerful than formerly. On the last day of the preceding session they had received into official situations some of those supporters of the war who in former years had opposed their measures. Earl Fitzwilliam had been appointed president of the council; the Duke of Portland became one of the secretaries of state; Earl Spencer was declared keeper of the privy seal; and Mr Windham was appointed secretary at war. But notwithstanding these official changes, Mr Pitt, with the aid of his friend Mr Dundas, and his relation Lord Grenville, was understood to retain the efficient power of the state. Mr Dundas still retained the management of the war with France; and, as a kind of third secretary of state, he performed a considerable part of the business which would otherwise have devolved upon the Duke of Portland; while at the same time he continued, as president of the board of control, to superintend the affairs of India, and to hold the office of treasurer of the navy. Earl Fitzwilliam was soon got quit of, being sent to Ireland as lord-lieutenant, under an agreement that he was to have full power to promote the repeal of the penal statutes against the Catholics, and to concede certain privileges which had been withheld in 1793. But ministers having altered their sentiments about some of these points, prohibited him from proceeding; and as he insisted upon the terms on which he had accepted his situation, he was recalled and dismissed from office. By joining ministers for a time, he was prevented from acting along with opposition in reprobating the war, and thus he was left isolated and separated from both parties.

Among the debates of the present session, one of the most remarkable was that which occurred upon the motion of Mr Grey in the House of Commons on the 26th of January 1795, that the existence of the actual government of France ought not to be considered as precluding a negotiation for peace. After two years of war, which had drained this country of its blood and treasure, we did not appear to be one point nearer the object for which it was undertaken. From certain words of the minister on a former occasion, Mr Grey inferred that this was a war of extermination, a mortal strife, to be carried on till one of the parties should be destroyed. He wished, by the motion, to put the question to issue whether this opinion was

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the convention had determined never to treat with them until there was a reform in the English government? He recalled to the recollection of Mr Pitt the declaration of his father, that they should die in the last breach before they granted the independence of America; yet the first act of the political life of the son had been to sign the very independence which his father had deprecated. Necessity had dictated that act; and he must now, on the same account, retract his declaration respecting France. The motion was opposed by Mr Dundas, on the ground that it would fetter the executive government in their negotiations for peace; and ultimately the motion was negatived, and the amendment adopted.

On the following day the Duke of Bedford brought forward, in the House of Lords, a motion similar to that which Mr Grey had introduced into the House of Commons; and Lord Grenville moved an amendment precisely similar to that which had been proposed by Mr Pitt and carried in the House of Commons. A great deal of discussion followed; but ultimately a large majority voted in favour of the amendment. The victories of the French during the last campaign, and the despair of ultimate success in the war, which now began to be entertained throughout the country, encouraged opposition to renew the subject under a variety of forms, and to urge ministers to enter into a negotiation; but on every occasion the motions made by them were negatived by a similar superiority of numbers.

The number of seamen and marines voted during the present session amounted to a hundred thousand, whilst a hundred and nineteen thousand three hundred and eighty men were voted to form the guards and garrisons. In order to procure the requisite number of seamen, the parliament required the merchants to give up a part of the crews of their shipping, in proportion to the tonnage, and ordered every parish to furnish one man for the service. A loan of L.18,000,000 was found necessary, together with a large issue of exchequer bills, as the supplies voted amounted to no less than L.29,307,000. The new taxes were made payable on wine, spirits, tea, coffee, stamps on deeds, insurance on ships and cargoes, timber, and on persons wearing hair-powder.

During the present session the trial of Mr Hastings was at length brought to a conclusion. The subject was discussed in a committee of the House of Lords. The lord chancellor and the Earl of Carnarvon considered Mr Hastings as criminal; but he was ably defended by Lord Thurlow, who was supported by the Marquis of Lansdown, the Bishop of Rochester, and others. When every part of the accusation had been disallowed by the committee, the report was reviewed by the house; and after some debates on the mode of proceeding, it was resolved that the question should be put separately on sixteen points. The greatest number of peers who voted the defendant guilty in any one respect did not exceed six, whilst the votes of not guilty on some of the charges were twenty-six, in others twenty-three, and in one nineteen. The lord chancellor then intimated the decision of the court to Mr Hastings, who received it in silence, and withdrew.

At this time the debts of the Prince of Wales amounted to L.630,000; but it had been arranged at court, that these debts should be paid, and that the prince should marry his cousin, the daughter of the Duke of Brunswick; and after some discussion in the House of Commons, his establishment was fixed at L.125,000 a year, out of which he was required to pay L.65,000 a year until his debts were liquidated. The rents of the duchy of Cornwall, amounting to L.13,000, were also set apart for the extinction of the debts; and further sums were voted to defray the expenses of the marriage, as well as the repairs and decorations of Carlton House.

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The incidents of the war during the year 1795 were less memorable than those of the preceding years. Lord Bridport, with an inferior force, attacked a French fleet near Port l'Orient, and took three of their ships. Vice-admiral Hotham pursued to the Genoese coast a fleet which had sailed from Toulon to attempt the recovery of Corsica, and had captured one of his detached ships; and having brought the enemy to a partial engagement, he took two sail of the line; but he afterwards lost one of his own ships in consequence of damage sustained in the conflict. On the western coast of France, the enemy, with thirteen sail of the line and fourteen frigates, avoided coming to an engagement with Vice-admiral Cornwallis, who had only eight ships including frigates. These events occurred early in summer. But notwithstanding the vigilance of the British navy, the French captured, in the month of July, thirty sail of a valuable convoy returning from the Mediterranean, and also made prize of part of a Jamaica fleet; but, on the other hand, their own commerce had sunk so low as to present few objects of attack to our cruisers and privateers.

As the Dutch, though nominally the allies of the French, had, in fact, become subject to them, letters of marque were issued against them by Great Britain, and directions given to seize their colonial territories, under the professed intention, however, of restoring them when the stadtholder's government should be re-established. The Cape of Good Hope was taken, together with Trincomalee and the other Asiatic settlements of the Dutch, excepting only Batavia. Their territories in the West Indies were not attacked during the present year, on account of the difficulties which the British experienced in that quarter in keeping in subjection the islands captured from the French, where various insurrections were incited by their ancient masters. Jamaica was also kept in a state of great alarm by a small tribe of independent negroes, called Maroons, who had long existed in the mountainous parts of the island. These people, having quarrelled with the white inhabitants, committed many cruel ravages, and were not subdued till Spanish hunters and blood-hounds were procured from the island of Cuba, and employed against them, which induced them at last to submit to deportation from the island.

The British ministry resolved, when it was too late, to give assistance to the royalists in the western parts of France; and an expedition, planned by Mr Windham, and guided by French emigrant officers, with troops, many of whom consisted of prisoners of war, relieved from confinement on condition of bearing arms against their native country, set sail for the French coast, and landed upon the extremity of the narrow peninsula of Quiberon. Here they fortified themselves; but many of the troops proving unfaithful, and the expedition being otherwise ill conducted, they were speedily overpowered by the republicans, who put to death such of their countrymen as they found in arms fighting against them. By this feeble and ill-timed invasion of the French territory, nearly ten thousand men were killed or taken prisoners.

The continental campaign on the side of Germany was of little importance during this year, but upon the whole it proved unfavourable to the French. The convention had shaken off the yoke of that sanguinary faction which, under Robespierre and his frantic associates, had deluged the interior of France with blood, but had nevertheless the merit of calling forth with astonishing energy the powers of the country for the support of its independence. The present leaders possessing less activity, and affecting a

milder course of conduct, the military operations languished; and the French army remained inactive till autumn, when it crossed the Rhine near Mentz under General Pichegru, but was speedily repulsed, and an armistice concluded for the winter. The convention, however, established a new form of government, consisting of an executive directory of five persons, elected by two representative bodies, to which the powers of legislation were intrusted; and it was expected, that if the war continued, the new executive power would endeavour to distinguish itself by some important operations.

The British parliament was again assembled at an early period, namely, on the 29th of October. The state of public affairs wore at this period an unfavourable aspect. The French armies had been inactive during the summer, but they had lost nothing; for the new republic retained possession of the territory extending from the Pyrenees to North Holland, and consequently of an immense length of coast opposite to Great Britain. Meanwhile, a dearth of provisions began to prevail at home. The winter, which had set in with extreme severity at the close of the year 1794, and had enabled the French to conquer Holland with little difficulty, was followed by an ungenial summer, during which the crop failed in consequence of almost incessant rains. This state of things was productive of discontent among the lower orders, and the war was blamed as tending to aggravate the distress which they thus suffered. Previous to the assembling of parliament some meetings were held by the London Corresponding Society, for the purpose of petitioning the king and parliament in favour of peace and of parliamentary reform; and as the meetings were held in the open fields, they were very numerously attended, but the persons composing them dispersed without disturbance. At the opening of parliament, however, some riots took place.

His majesty proceeded from the palace to open the session of parliament at the usual hour; and the crowd in St James's Park, which is always considerable on these occasions, was certainly much greater than usual. A fine day, and a rumour which had been circulated that a riot was likely to take place, contributed greatly to increase the multitude of the spectators. As the royal carriage passed along the park, the predominant exclamations uttered were "Peace, peace! Give us bread: No Pitt; no famine; no war!" and a few voices were heard to exclaim, "Down with George," or words to that effect. In the park and the streets adjacent to Westminster, stones and other missiles were thrown, some of which struck the state coach, and one of them, supposed to have been thrown from a house in Margaret Street, perforated a window of the carriage by a small circular aperture. From this circumstance it was alleged to have been a bullet discharged by an air-gun, or by some similar engine; but no bullet was found; and happily it neither touched the king nor the noblemen who attended him. As his majesty returned from the house through the park, the gates of the horseguards were shut to exclude the mob; yet even this precaution was not sufficient to prevent a renewal of the outrages, and another stone was thrown at the carriage as it passed opposite to Spring Garden Terrace. After the king had alighted at St James's, the populace attacked the state-carriage, and, in its way through Pall-mall to the Mews, it was almost entirely demolished. The speech from the throne stated that the general situation of affairs, notwithstanding many events unfavourable to the common cause, was materially improved; that the French had been driven back in Italy, and checked on the side of Germany; that their successes, and the treaties of peace which they had entered into, were far from compensating the evils they had suffered from the continuance of war;

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Meanwhile administration took advantage of the attack upon his majesty's person to issue a proclamation, connecting the meetings of the Corresponding Society with the insults offered to his majesty, and also to bring forward two new penal statutes. The first was introduced into the House of Lords by Lord Grenville, and entitled an act for the preservation of his majesty's person and government against treasonable and seditious practices. One clause enacted capital punishment against every one who should express, utter, or declare, by the publication of writings, or by any overt act, such imaginations, devices, or intentions, as were calculated to injure the king, impair his authority or that of the parliament, or promote an invasion of his dominions; another provided, that all declarations tending to excite hatred or contempt of the king should be considered as high misdemeanours; and a third, that a second offence might be punished, either in the ordinary mode, or by banishment from the realm for a term not exceeding seven years. The other bill, introduced by Mr Pitt into the House of Commons, provided, that no meeting of any description of persons, exceeding the number of fifty, except such as might be called by sheriffs or other officers or magistrates, should be holden for political purposes, unless public notice had been previously given by seven housekeepers; that if such a body should assemble without notice, and twelve or more individuals should continue together, even quietly, for one hour after a legal order for their departure, they should be punished as felons, without benefit of clergy; and that the same rigour might be exercised, if any person, after due notice of the meeting, should use seditious language, or propose the irregular alteration of any thing by law established. With regard to the delivery of lectures or discourses, or the exercise of debate on topics connected with the laws and government of the country, a license was declared to be necessary. Very animated discussions took place upon these bills in both houses of parliament, and many petitions were presented against them; whilst, on the other hand, various corporations and public bodies petitioned for their enactment. But the result nevertheless was, that the bills were passed by great majorities.

Still, however, administration were sensible that it would become necessary, for the sake of preserving their popularity, to assume an appearance of willingness to put an end to the war; and accordingly, whilst the bills were under discussion, each house received a message from the king, in which, alluding to the new constitution, and the directorial government of France, he stated that such an order of things had arisen as would induce him to meet any desire of negotiation on the part of the enemy with a full readiness to give it the speediest effect. An address of thanks having been moved, Mr Sheridan suggested an amendment, tending to promote immediate negotiation, and to remove all obstacles to the attainment of peace; and Mr Fox also wished that the first advances should proceed from our court; but Mr Pitt and Mr Dundas thought it advisable to wait until the enemy manifested a disposi-

tion to negotiate. Similar observations were made in the House of Peers. A species of advance towards negotiation was nevertheless made soon afterwards on the part of Britain, though in a very oblique and indirect mode. Mr Wickham, his majesty's minister to the Swiss cantons, transmitted, on the 8th of March 1796, a note to M. Barthélemy, the French ambassador at Berne, stating that he himself was not authorized to enter into any negotiation, but requesting information in writing on the part of the French court about three points: first, whether France was disposed to send ministers to a congress to negotiate a general peace with his Britannic majesty and his allies; secondly, whether the French government were willing to state the general grounds upon which they would consent to conclude a treaty; and, thirdly, whether the French government would think fit to propose any other mode of arriving at a general pacification. M. Barthélemy returned an answer on the 26th of the same month, stating that the executive directory doubted the sincerity of these overtures of peace, from the proposal of a general congress, which would lead to endless negotiations, and from Mr Wickham not having received powers to negotiate; asserting the willingness of France to make peace; but declaring that the executive directory had no power to relinquish any of the territories which the constitutional act had declared to form an integral part of the French republic. With regard to the other territories occupied by the French armies, these might become objects of negotiation. But as the Netherlands and the island of St Domingo had been declared by the new French constitution to form part of the territory of the republic, the British government immediately published a note intimating that these pretensions on the part of France were totally inadmissible; and that while they were persisted in, nothing was left but to prosecute a war equally just and necessary. This first attempt towards negotiation for peace gave rise to various debates in the British parliament, in all of which administration were supported by their usual majorities.

Supplies were voted during this session to the amount of £37,588,000, and upwards of twenty-five millions and a half were borrowed. As no prospect existed that British armies could be employed on the Continent, the guards and garrisons were reduced to forty-nine thousand men; the forces in the colonies were increased to seventy-seven thousand; and the sailors and marines amounted to a hundred and ten thousand. Taxes were imposed on legacies to collateral relations, and on horses, and dogs, and hats; the assessed taxes were increased, and also the duties on wine, tobacco, salt, and sugar. Parliament was dissolved on the 20th of May, and new elections immediately took place.

An extremely active campaign was now opened by the French upon the Continent. Their generals, Moreau and Jourdan, penetrated into Germany; but they were ultimately repulsed by the Archduke Charles, though not till they had reached the vicinity of Ratibon. The retreat of Moreau, amidst hostile armies, and through the difficulties and entanglements of the Black Forest, formed one of the principal events of the war, and has been much lauded by some military writers, though severely criticised by Napoleon. On the side of Italy the French obtained greater success. Their new general in that quarter, Bonaparte, turned the Alps by the Col di Tende, and gaining in rapid succession the victories at Montenotte, Millesimo, and Dego, compelled the king of Sardinia to desert the allies, and to purchase peace at the expense of a considerable portion of his territory. He next descended into the Milanese; obliged the Italian states to surrender their finest paintings, statues, and other curiosities, together with large sums of money, as the price of peace; and after a

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In the early part of the session of parliament, which met on the 6th of October, there occurred few debates, on account of the intention to attempt an immediate negotiation, which had been announced in the king's speech, and afterwards from expectation of its issue. But at the close of the year the French directory, in consequence of an invitation from a disaffected party in Ireland, sent an expedition of seventeen ships of the line and many smaller vessels, having on board an army of eighteen thousand men under General Hoche, to invade that country. The violence of the weather prevented this armament from assembling at the rendezvous in Bantry Bay, and no landing was in consequence attempted; so that the fleet returned home with the loss of two ships of the line and two frigates, which perished in a tempest, and of one frigate taken by the English. Shortly afterwards the French disembarked on the coast of Cumberland twelve hundred and fifty criminals, whom they had sent as soldiers upon the Irish expedition, and knew not how to dispose of after the failure of that attempt.

At this period the first instance of serious difficulty occurred in the management of the British funding system. The large sums of money sent abroad as subsidies to foreign princes by government had diminished the quantity of gold and silver in Great Britain, whilst administration, through the medium of the Bank of England's paper, had issued immense sums for the public expenses, and in payment of the additional interest of the national debt. The alarm occasioned by the Irish invasion coming in addition to these circumstances, produced a run upon the bank to exchange its paper for specie; and as their coffers were soon drained, they found themselves under the necessity of giving a premium for bullion, which they paid with their paper. This made matters worse, as certain persons secretly melted down the guineas which the bank had caused to be coined and issued, and sold the gold to the bank as bullion for the sake of the premium. A ruinous traffic was thus carried on by the bank, which purchased bullion at a high rate, while they gave out their guineas at par. The directors, therefore, were under the necessity of laying their case before the privy council, which, after considering the circumstances of the case, issued an order authorizing the bank to discontinue the payment of their notes in cash. Considerable alarm was occasioned by this step; and committees of both houses of parliament were appointed to inquire into the state of the bank's affairs.

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During the preceding year the emperor had received a subsidy, under the name of a loan, from the British government, and a new subsidy was now given him under a similar denomination. To supply this and the rest of the national expenses, £27,647,000 were voted early in the session, and afterwards above fifteen millions additional were thought necessary, and voted. Two loans were negotiated by government; one of sixteen millions and a half, in the usual way, from money-brokers; and another of eighteen millions, called the Loyalty Loan, from the nobility and gentry being requested to fill it up, which they did with great eagerness. The troops voted consisted of a hundred and twenty thousand seamen; sixty thousand seven hundred and sixty-five soldiers for European service, and above sixty-four thousand for the dependencies of Great Britain. As the threat of invasion was now revived, a large supplementary body of militia was levied, together with a considerable force consisting of cavalry. The interest of the two loans was provided for by taxes upon houses, stage-coaches, horses, auctions, stamps on agreements and newspapers, ornamental plate, spirits, tea, coffee, and other articles. Towards the close of the session the opposition brought forward motions to address the king to dismiss his ministers, resume the negotiation with France, and repeal the two acts introduced in the preceding session, by Lord Grenville and Mr Pitt, for extending the treason laws, and imposing restrictions upon popular meetings for political purposes. They were encouraged by a variety of addresses which were presented to his majesty at this time from different parts of the country, advising him to dismiss the present ministry; but, as usual, their efforts proved unavailing.

The French had now acquired such an ascendancy over the Spanish monarchy, as to induce the government of that country to declare war against Britain; and soon afterwards the Spanish fleet, amounting to twenty-seven sail of the line, attempted to join a French armament; but they were attacked by Sir John Jervis on the 14th of February, near Cape St Vincent, with only fifteen sail of the line; and four of their ships, of from seventy-four to a hundred and twelve guns, were made prizes by the British fleet. This victory may be regarded as the first of that mighty series of naval triumphs with which the name of Nelson is indissolubly associated. The British force consisted of two ships of a hundred guns, two of ninety-eight, two of ninety, eight of seventy-four, and one of

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Reign of George III. morning was now coming up, Sir John Jervis made signal to bring to. If the enemy had chosen at this moment to avail themselves of their great superiority of force, the situation of the British admiral would have been most critical. His ships could not have formed without abandoning those which they had captured, and running to leeward; the Captain was lying a perfect wreck on board her two prizes, with her fore-topmast shot away, and not a sail, shroud, or rope left, while her wheel was smashed; and many of the other ships were so shattered in their masts and rigging as to be wholly unmanageable. But the Spanish admiral, Don Josef de Cordova, having inquired of his captains whether they judged it proper to renew the action, and nine having answered in the negative, whilst others gave their opinion in favour of delay, abandoned all idea of recommencing the battle, and drew off, leaving the British in possession of the prizes which they had so gallantly won. For this victory the commander-in-chief was rewarded with the title of Earl St Vincent, and Rear-admiral Nelson had the order of the Bath given him. It was his skilful and daring disobedience of orders which rendered the battle decisive.

At the commencement of the summer an event occurred which, had the French been prepared to attempt an invasion of this country, might have been productive of serious evils. This was a mutiny in the fleet. Gross impositions had for some time been practised upon the seamen, both as to the quantity and quality of the provisions allowed them; and they had made an anonymous application for redress to Earl Howe. But the application was disregarded, because the strictness of discipline prevented the open avowal or appearance of discontent, which his lordship inconsiderately supposed had no existence; and the seamen, disappointed of the expected relief, resolved to enforce the consideration of their claims. Accordingly, when orders were given to prepare for putting to sea, the crew of the *Queen Charlotte*, and other ships lying at Spithead, refused to act; and treating with contempt the remonstrances of the officers, they made choice of delegates, who after a formal consultation drew up petitions to the board of admiralty and the House of Commons. Earl Spencer, first lord of the admiralty, dreading a dangerous mutiny, and not thinking the demands of the seamen unreasonable, promised compliance; and the king readily offered full pardon to all who should immediately return to their duty. But the seamen would not be satisfied till the parliament had confirmed the promises of the admiralty; and some delay thus ensued, the irritation of their minds led to a contest with Vice-admiral Colpoys, in which some lives were lost. An act, however, was passed for the gratification of the seamen in point both of pay and provisions; and subordination was restored at Spithead and Plymouth. The concession of these claims encouraged the seamen at the Nore to insist on a more punctual discharge of arrears, a more equal distribution of prize-money, and a general abatement of the severity of discipline. A council of delegates was elected, at the head of which was a seaman named Richard Parker, who took the command of the fleet, and prevailed upon the men to reject repeated offers of pardon. He robbed two merchant ships of provisions, obstructed trade by the detention of other vessels, and fired on some ships of war which refused to accede to the mutinous combination. An act of parliament was passed in the beginning of June, denouncing capital punishment against all who should hold intercourse with the rebellious ships, or voluntarily continue on board; and as the public strongly disapproved of this last mutiny, for which no excuse could be offered, the seamen gradually returned to their duty. Parker was apprehended, and, along with several other mutineers, punished with death; and a

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During the summer the port of Cadiz was blockaded by the British fleet under Sir John Jervis, now Earl St Vincent; and an attempt was made against the Spanish island of Tenerife, but without success. Meanwhile another fleet under Admiral Duncan watched the Texel; but the blockading force having retired for a short time, the Dutch fleet, under Admiral De Winter, put to sea. Intelligence of this event having been brought to Admiral Duncan at Yarmouth, he instantly proceeded in quest of the enemy; and about eleven o'clock in the forenoon of the 11th October 1797 he got sight of the squadron which had been left to watch their motions, and which displayed signals of an enemy to leeward. Admiral Duncan immediately made signal for a general chase, and soon got sight of the Dutch, forming in a line on the star-board tack to receive him, the land between Camperdown and Egmont being then about nine miles to the leeward. On making this discovery, he shortened sail to connect the squadron; and finding there was no time to be lost in making the attack, he made signal to bear up, break the enemy's line, and engage each ship her opponent to leeward, without waiting to form the line of battle. The order was promptly and gallantly obeyed; Vice-admiral Onslow, in the *Monarch*, bore down on the enemy's rear, his division following his example; and about forty minutes past twelve o'clock the battle commenced. Admiral Duncan, in the *Venerable*, also passed through the enemy's line, at the head of his division, and began a close action with the enemy's van, which lasted two hours and a half, when all the masts of the Dutch admiral's ship were observed to go by the board, and she not long afterwards struck to her opponent. The Dutch vice-admiral's ship being also dismasted, surrendered to Vice-admiral Onslow, and nine others became the prizes of the conquerors. The battle was obstinate and sanguinary; but its decisive results may be ascribed to the bold manœuvre of instantly pushing between the enemy and the land, to which they were fast approaching. Had Admiral Duncan waited to form line of battle, in the ordinary way, there either would have been no action at all, or if the British had attacked, the Dutch admiral, by getting nearer to the shore, would probably have drawn both fleets on it, which would have been a victory to him. The force on both sides was nearly equal, each squadron consisting of sixteen ships of two decks; but of the British not more than ten ships were seriously engaged, and these captured eleven of the enemy. Had Admiral Duncan's fleet been composed of the same materials as Lord St Vincent's, every Dutch ship would have been taken; and the same result would have followed had all the ships followed the example set them by the *Venerable*. The fact is, however, that the British squadron was composed of very indifferent and inadequate vessels, many of them having been intended for Indian duty; and that it was otherwise in many respects ill conditioned and deficient; but there was no want of gallantry on the part of the crews, and when the main-top-gallant mast of the *Venerable* was shot

away, a seaman of the name of Crawford nailed the flag to the top-mast head.¹ This victory excited the most lively joy in the British nation, from its tendency to put an end to all dread of invasion.

While their allies, or rather subjects, were suffering these disasters by sea, the French armies triumphed on the Continent. Bonaparte advanced from Italy against the centre of the Austrian dominions, and, after several sanguinary conflicts, crossed the Alps where they approach the frontiers of Hungary, and forced the emperor to conclude preliminaries of peace at Leoben, on the 19th of April, which were followed by a definitive treaty, signed at Campo Formio, near Udine, on the 17th of October. The emperor acquired the city of Venice; but he relinquished the Milanese and the Netherlands, and, by secret articles, consented that the Rhine should form the boundary of France. Britain being now left alone in the contest into which she had originally entered as an auxiliary to Austria and Prussia, the government opened a negotiation towards the close of the summer; and as both the French and British nations eagerly wished for a termination of this sanguinary contest, it is probable that administration seriously wished to conclude a treaty; but at this time a party, headed by the director Barras, had gained the ascendancy in France, and resolved to continue the war. A demand was therefore made that Britain should renounce every conquest as a preliminary to negotiation, whilst France reserved a right to make further demands; and on this being refused, the British ambassador, Lord Malmesbury, was dismissed from Lisle, where the negotiations had been opened.

Parliament assembled on the 2d of November. In the speech from the throne his majesty stated his concern that his endeavours to restore peace had been rendered ineffectual, and expressed the fullest reliance on the magnanimity and courage of the people. During this session of parliament few or none of the members of opposition attended. At the close of the preceding session they had declared it to be their intention to retire from parliament; and they justified their conduct by alleging that, in times when every man who censured the measures of administration was regarded as in league with the enemy, it was equally painful and useless to incur such odium; that if they declared their sentiments, they were proclaimed as the enemies of the king, and if they tacitly acquiesced in the measures of the minister, they voluntarily took upon themselves a share of the responsibility; that they had done their utmost to prevent the war, and had urged repeatedly the necessity of bringing it to a speedy termination, without persuading their opponents; that events must now take their natural course; and that as they could not aid by their counsel, it should not be said that they embarrassed by their opposition. This retirement of opposition was much resented, and spoken of with great bitterness, by the friends of administration, as it suggested to the nation the idea that government was conducted by the power of the crown alone, unchecked by any discussion of its measures in the two legislative assemblies.

The inability of the bank of England to pay upon demand its notes in specie, according to ancient custom and

¹ The following characteristic anecdote has been related of an officer who distinguished himself by his gallantry in this action. Captain Inglis of the *Belliqueux* of sixty-four guns, owing either to long absence from the service, or to an inaptitude not very uncommon among naval officers of the old school, had neglected to make himself master of the signal-book; and on the morning of the day of battle, when it became necessary to act with promptitude, in obedience to the signals, he found himself more puzzled than enlightened by it. After poring over it for some time, without being in any degree benefited by the perusal, he threw it with contempt upon the deck, exclaiming in broad Scotch, "Damn me, up wi' the hellum and gang into the middle o't." These words are inconsistent with the true spirit of battle, and show that Captain Inglis bravely anticipated the remedy in such cases provided by Nelson, who, in his celebrated memorandum on the eve of the mighty combat of Trafalgar, observes, that "if a captain should be at a loss, he cannot do very wrong if he lay his ship alongside of the enemy." In strict conformity with this doctrine, the *Belliqueux* lost no time in "ganging into the middle o't," by attacking the enemy's van, which she contributed to throw into confusion, although she got rather roughly treated by them before she could be supported.

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the terms of the obligation contained in these notes, appears now to have created in Mr Pitt's mind some dread respecting the funding system, and an apprehension, that from the immense sums annually borrowed, and the corresponding quantity of paper-money necessarily issued to pay the interest of the loans, the system might be carried so far as to discredit the paper-money issued in the name of the bank of England. And this apprehension was strengthened by a fact, of which everybody was daily becoming more sensible, namely, that the money price of all kinds of property in Great Britain had rapidly risen during the war; and this rise of price was justly ascribed to a gradual sinking in the value of money, or of paper, the only money used in Britain, in consequence of its too great abundance. Mr Pitt therefore proposed, instead of borrowing the whole sum necessary to defray the expense of the war, and imposing no more taxes than were requisite to pay the interest of the loan, that heavier taxes should be imposed, in order to defray a portion of the extraordinary expenditure. Accordingly an act was passed for raising seven millions within the year; and this was to be effected by augmenting the assessed taxes, but so as not to compel any individual to pay more than one tenth of his income. The leading members of opposition attended to oppose this extraordinary measure, but without effect.

As the French were now disencumbered of all other adversaries, it was naturally expected that they would turn their arms in a more direct manner than formerly against the British empire. The result of the combination of the states of Europe for the partition of France had been extremely disastrous, and had left the new republic in possession of an extent of territory which the ablest and most ambitious of the French monarchs had in vain aspired to possess. The command which they had now obtained of Holland rendered France more dangerous than formerly, by the superior means of invasion which an additional extent of coast and the possession of a large quantity of shipping might afford; and had the French navy been less weak, or the French rulers possessed of greater ability, a dangerous crisis in the history of Great Britain might at this period have occurred. It never was the interest of any British administration to conceal from the public at large the possibility of a foreign invasion; and as the French government at this time boasted of their intention to make such an attempt, and ordered a considerable army to advance to the sea coast, it became the duty of ministers in Great Britain to make preparations to resist any such effort. Accordingly they came forward in parliament to propose measures of defence; and the danger with which the nation considered itself as threatened obliged all men in some measure still to adhere to an administration which in other respects might have lost their popularity from the ill success of their late measures. On the 8th of February 1798 Mr Dundas introduced into the House of Commons a bill to enable the king to incorporate in the regular militia a portion of the supplementary militia. And this bill being passed with little debate, the same minister, on the 27th of March, moved for leave to bring in another, to enable his majesty to provide for the security and defence of these realms, and to indemnify persons who might suffer injury in their property by the operation of such measures. The object of this bill was to provide for every possible emergency, by giving a power to his majesty to discover what persons were prepared to appear in arms and to be embodied for the public defence; and also to ascertain what number of the inhabitants of certain districts would be able to act as pioneers, or in other laborious situations. The other provisions were, that in the event of its being necessary to employ persons as pioneers to remove stock, or assist in facilitating the carriage of

military stores, proper compensation would be made; and the bill was also intended to give a power of embodying a portion of the regular militia, and employing them in the defence of the country. This bill was passed into a law after some unimportant debates, the principal members of opposition not usually attending.

As it was supposed that the war, on the part of Britain, would occasion greater expense than when all Europe had been engaged in it along with her, the supplies were augmented to £35,000,000; and, with a view to draw resources from distant parts of the country, instead of raising large loans for the public service, which were negotiated in London alone, Mr Pitt brought forward a scheme by which proprietors of land were enabled to redeem the land-tax; in other words, the owner of land, and, failing him, any other person, was to be permitted to purchase this tax, by a transfer of stock, which produced a dividend greater than the amount of the impost. The measure became law, but produced little immediate effect.

On the 25th of May Mr Pitt brought forward a bill in the House of Commons, with a view to increase the navy, and to resist with greater success the threatened invasion. On this occasion an event occurred, which indicated, that by the long possession of power, and the support he had received from the nation, Mr Pitt had suffered to grow upon him a certain haughtiness of manner and impatience of contradiction, which, in former times, would have proved extremely inconvenient to a British minister. On the subject of his proposed bill, he observed, that the object he had in view was to suspend, for a limited time, the protections which various descriptions of persons enjoyed, to prevent them from being impressed into the service of the navy; and he stated it as his wish that the bill should that day pass through its different stages, with a suitable pause at each if required, and that it should be sent to the Lords for their concurrence. Mr Tierney remarked on the very extraordinary manner in which Mr Pitt called upon the house to adopt this measure. He had imagined that the augmentation of the navy was to be provided for in the usual way; or, if any very uncommon mode was to be resorted to for the attainment of that object, that notice would have been given to the house. He had heard no arguments that proved its propriety; and even if he had, some time ought to have been allowed to weigh the force of such arguments, before proceeding to give three or four votes on a measure, of which no notice of any kind had been given. If the ministers persisted in hurrying the bill through the house in the manner proposed, he must give it a decided negative; and, indeed, from what he had already seen, he must view all their measures as hostile to the liberties of the subjects of this country. Mr Pitt replied, that if every measure adopted against the designs of France was to be considered as hostile to the liberty of this country, then indeed his idea of liberty differed widely from that of the honourable gentleman. He observed that he had given notice before of the present motion, and that if it were not passed in a day, those whom it concerned might elude its effects. But if the measure was necessary, and if a notice of it would enable its effects to be eluded, how could the honourable gentleman's opposition be accounted for, except from a desire to obstruct the defence of the country? Mr Tierney called Mr Pitt to order; and the Speaker observed, that whatever had a tendency to throw suspicion on the sentiments of a member, if conveyed in language that clearly marked that intention, was certainly irregular. Mr Pitt replied, that if the house waited for his explanation, he feared it must wait a long time. He knew very well that it was unpardonable to state the motives that actuated the opinions of gentlemen; but it was impossible to go into arguments in favour of a

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question, without sometimes hinting at the motives that induced an opposition to it. He submitted to the judgment of the house the propriety of what he argued; and he would not depart from any thing he had advanced, by either retracting or explaining it. The result of this altercation was a duel on the following Sunday between Mr Pitt and Mr Tierney. They went to Putney Heath, attended by seconds, and, standing at the distance of twelve paces, fired two shots each; but Mr Pitt discharged his second pistol in the air, upon which the seconds interfered, and thus the affair terminated.

During the summer of this year a rebellion broke out in Ireland, the particulars of which will be stated in their proper place. The enthusiasm which the French revolution had kindled in so many quarters of Europe extended itself to Ireland. There, some men of ardent imaginations, chiefly Protestant dissenters, persuaded themselves that they could regenerate their country, cast off the dominion of Great Britain, heal the unhappy divisions among the inhabitants of Ireland, and convert it into an independent republic. As early as the year 1793 these persons formed themselves into a society, under the name of the United Irishmen, and were gradually joined by a very large proportion of the population of the country. They applied for aid from France; and it was in consequence of their urgent invitation that the unsuccessful expedition under General Hoche was undertaken. From that period the country remained in a state of the greatest alarm. On the one side rigorous laws were enacted, and every effort was made, by severity of punishment, to repress all appearance of opposition to the existing government; whilst, on the other, the common people busied themselves in the fabrication and concealment of pikes, or broke into the houses of country gentlemen, to seize whatever fire-arms they could discover. The schemes of the disaffected party were greatly disconcerted by the discovery and apprehension of their principal leaders. A rebellion, however, actually broke out; but, though attended with considerable destruction of human lives and of property, it was of a partial nature, and speedily suppressed. During its existence some circumstances occurred which completely demonstrated of how visionary a nature had been the schemes of those persons who hoped to establish in Ireland an independent government upon any basis that could afford a tolerable hope of national prosperity. The disaffected party among the Protestants, too weak to be able of themselves either to shake off the dominion of Great Britain, or to assume the ascendancy in Ireland, were under the necessity of calling in the aid of the Roman Catholics, who constitute the great mass of Irish population; and they were the more readily induced to do so, from a notion, which of late years had very generally gained ground in Europe, that religious sentiments form no proper ground of distinction in civil society, and from perceiving the facility with which the Catholics of France had set at defiance the religion of their fathers, when placed in competition with what they accounted the interests of freedom, or the means of aggrandisement to their country. But it speedily appeared that these new maxims of conduct could not be adopted by the superstitious and illiterate peasantry of Ireland. The Catholics were no sooner in arms than their chief animosity came to be directed, not against the dominion of Britain, nor against any form of civil government, but against their own countrymen of the Protestant faith, who must thus ultimately have fallen a sacrifice to the success of their own schemes. In short, it became evident that Ireland could not possibly exist in tranquillity, or with safety to the Protestant part of its inhabitants, independent of the supremacy of Great Britain.

Upon the Continent, the world was amused with a ne-

gociation carried on at Rastadt, between the French directory and the German empire. It was conducted with much slowness, and ultimately proved ineffectual. But whilst it was in progress, the French government, having contrived to quarrel with the Swiss cantons, invaded and seized their country, and converted it into a new republic, under their own influence. Austria, however, had been so much humbled by recent losses, that she did not venture, on this occasion, to assert the independence of Switzerland, although it must have been evident that her own independence was ultimately connected with that object. Switzerland consists of a vast assemblage of lofty and precipitous mountains, situated in such a manner as to divide the most important countries of Europe from each other. On one side these mountains look down upon the fertile territory of Italy; to the north they command the very centre of Germany; and to the west they are bounded by France. For ages they have been inhabited by a virtuous and fearless race of people, divided into petty communities, who contented themselves with maintaining their own independence; and though, as individuals, they entered into the military service of the neighbouring princes, yet, as a people, they had long ceased to take any part in the wars of Europe. For some centuries the independence of Switzerland proved the chief basis of the independence of the neighbouring nations. All parties respected and avoided any dispute with the Swiss, in a war against whom much might be lost, but nothing could be won. Accordingly, when the French attacked the Austrians, and when the Austrians attacked the French, the assailing party was under the necessity of sending its armies to a great distance from the centre of its own power. If defeated, the march homewards was long and difficult; whilst, even if tolerably successful, the attack never proved seriously dangerous, in consequence of its having been made in a remote quarter with limited means. Hence, in 1796, when the French generals Moreau and Jourdan marched through Suabia and Franconia to invade Austria, the length of their march afforded many opportunities of attacking them with success; and the invaded country had full leisure to call forth its whole resources against them. The result was, that when Jourdan sustained a defeat, the retreat of the other army became almost impracticable; and hence arose the unbought reputation acquired by Moreau for accomplishing it with success. Had the French at that period occupied Switzerland, the retreat of Moreau would have been attended with little or no difficulty; because, by retiring into that rugged country, he could easily have made a stand against a very superior force for a considerable time, till he had received reinforcements. For the future, therefore, by commencing a war of invasion against Austria, not upon the frontiers contiguous to France, but at the eastern extremity of the Swiss mountains, the French, if successful, might reach the gates of Vienna in a few weeks. The independence of Switzerland, by placing these nations at a distance from each other, had hitherto prevented such an enterprise from being carried into effect; and the present removal of that barrier by the French directory, during a period of peace with Austria, displayed, upon their part, a correct knowledge of the cause which had at all times set bounds to the ambition of France, and at the same time evinced a determined spirit of hostility against the independence of the surrounding states.

Meanwhile the weakness of the French navy rendered it impossible for them to engage in any serious attack against the European part of the British empire. The French government, however, with the double view of attacking the rich empire which Britain had acquired in Asia, and of removing a successful military chief, whose ambition was already accounted dangerous, formed a de-

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sign of sending Bonaparte, with an army, to seize upon and colonize Egypt. To accomplish this scheme with the greater safety, the threats of invading England were loudly renewed; the troops stationed on the coast were denominated the Army of England; and Bonaparte being now appointed their commander, visited them in person. But suddenly departing, he embarked at Toulon with a powerful army, before his intentions were suspected in Great Britain; Malta was surrendered to him on his passage; and departing thence, he landed in safety in the vicinity of Alexandria, and soon made himself master of all Egypt. Here, however, his successes terminated. He was closely pursued by a British fleet under Admiral Nelson; and the French admiral, Brueys, having remained at anchor near the shore in the Bay of Aboukir, afforded an opportunity for the British navy to earn one of its proudest and most decisive triumphs.

Why Bonaparte, having effected a landing in Egypt, should not have suffered the fleet to return, has never been explained. He accused Admiral Brueys, after that officer's death, of having lingered on the coast, contrary to orders; and the same charge is repeated in the memoirs which he transmitted from the place of his exile. But it is scarcely credible that any officer, situated as Brueys was, would have incurred the heavy responsibility which such disobedience incurs; and the more probable supposition therefore seems to be, that the fleet was detained by Bonaparte's orders. It arrived at Alexandria on the first of July; and Brueys, not being able to enter the port which time had ruined, moored his ships in Aboukir Bay, in a strong and compact line of battle; the headmost vessel being close to the shoal on the north-west of the bay, and the rest of the fleet forming a curve along the line of deep water, so as not to be turned by any means in the south-west. He had in fact made the best of his situation, and chosen the strongest position which he could possibly take in an open roadstead; so much so, indeed, that the commissary of the fleet thought they were moored in such a manner as to bid defiance to a force double their own. Besides, the advantage of numbers, in ships, guns, and men, was in favour of the French. They had thirteen ships of the line and four frigates, carrying eleven hundred and ninety-six guns, and eleven thousand two hundred and thirty men. The English had the same number of ships of the line, and one fifty-gun ship, the *Leander*, carrying only a thousand and twelve guns, and eight thousand and eighty-six men. The French had one three-decker of a hundred and twenty guns, and three eighty-gun ships; whilst the English ships were all seventy-fours. The moment Nelson perceived the position of the enemy, his intuitive genius suggested to him the decisive conception, that where there was room for a French ship to swing, there was room for an English ship to anchor; and this plan he accordingly adopted was to keep entirely on the exterior side of the French, and station his ships, as far as he was able, one on the outer bow, and another on the outer quarter of each of the enemy's, thus doubling on them in the way which had been projected by Lord Howe when he intended to attack the French fleet at their anchorage in Goréeur road.

As the British squadron advanced the enemy opened a fire from the starboard side of their whole line into the bows of the leading ships. It was received in silence and with stern composure; whilst the men on board of every ship were employed aloft in furling the sails, and below in tending the braces, and making ready for anchoring. Captain Foley led the way in the *Goliath*, outailing the *Zealous*, which for some minutes disputed the post of honour with him; and intending to fix himself on the inner bow of the *Guerrier*, kept as near the edge of the

shoal as the depth of water would admit; but his anchor hung, and having opened his fire, he drifted to the second ship, the *Conquerant*, before it was clear, then anchored by the stern inside of her, and in ten minutes shot away her masts. Captain Hood in the *Zealous* took the station which the *Goliath* intended to have occupied, and in twelve minutes totally disabled the *Guerrier*. The *Orion*, Sir James Saumarez, next passed to windward of the *Zealous*, discharging her larboard guns as long as they bore on the *Guerrier*; and running inside the *Goliath*, sunk a frigate which annoyed her, hauled round towards the French line, and anchoring inside between the fifth and sixth ships from the *Guerrier*, took her station on the larboard bow of the *Franklin* and the larboard quarter of the *Peuple Souverain*, receiving and returning the fire of both. The Audacious, Captain Gould, pouring in a heavy fire into the *Guerrier* and the *Conquerant*, fixed herself on the larboard bow of the latter, and, when that ship struck, passed on to the *Peuple Souverain*. The *Theseus*, Captain Millar, followed, and having brought down the *Guerrier*'s main and mizzen masts, anchored inside the *Spartiate*, the third ship of the enemy's line. The sun was now nearly down; but Nelson's decisive manœuvre had already been completely executed in its most critical parts.

The *Vanguard*, bearing the admiral's flag, and leading his division, now anchored on the outside of the enemy's line, within half-pistol-shot of the *Spartiate*, and veering half a cable, instantly opened a tremendous fire, under cover of which the *Minotaur*, *Bellerophon*, *Defence*, and *Majestic*, passed ahead to occupy their several stations. On this side the French were completely prepared; and in a few minutes every man stationed at the first six guns in the fore part of the *Vanguard*'s deck was either killed or wounded. The *Minotaur* anchored next ahead of the *Vanguard*, and took off the fire of the *Aquilon*, the fourth in the enemy's line. The *Bellerophon* passed ahead and anchored by the stern on the starboard bow of the *Orient* of a hundred and twenty guns, Brueys' own ship, and the seventh in the line, "whose difference of force was in proportion of more than seven to three, and whose weight of ball from the lower deck alone exceeded that from the whole broadside of the *Bellerophon*." The *Defence* took her station ahead of the *Minotaur*, and engaged the enemy's sixth ship, the *Franklin*, by which judicious proceeding the British line remained unbroken. The *Majestic* having got entangled with the main rigging of one of the French ships astern of the *Orient*, suffered severely from the heavy fire of that three-decker; but she at length swung clear, and engaging the *Heureux*, or ninth ship, on the starboard bow, received also the fire of the *Tonnant*, which was the eighth in their line. The remaining four ships of the British squadron, having been detached previously to the discovery of the French, were at a considerable distance when the action commenced, which was at half past six; and as night closed about seven, they had no other light to guide them in going into action than the fire of the contending fleets.

Trowbridge in the *Culoden*, the foremost of the remaining ships, being two leagues astern, came on sounding as the others had done; but as he advanced the darkness increased the difficulty of the navigation; and suddenly, after having found eleven fathoms water, and before the lead could be hoisted again, he was fast aground; nor could all exertions get off the ship in time to bear a part in the action. This accident, however, proved in some degree fortunate, since the *Culoden* served as a beacon to the *Alexander* and *Swiftsure*, which would otherwise have gone upon the reef, and thus enabled them to enter the bay and take their stations in the darkness. As the *Swiftsure* was bearing down she fell in with what at first

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seemed to be a strange sail, but proved to be the *Bellerophon*, which, overpowered by the *Orient*, was now drifting out of the line towards the lee side of the bay, with her sails hanging loose, her lights knocked overboard, nearly two hundred of her crew killed or wounded, and all her masts and cables shot away. Suspecting how it was, Captain Hallowell, with great judgment, abstained from firing; and occupying with the *Swiftsure* the station of the disabled ship, he opened a heavy fire on the quarter of the *Franklin* and the bows of the French admiral; whilst Captain Ball, in the *Alexander*, passed under the stern of the *Orient*, and anchoring within side on her larboard quarter, raked her, at the same time keeping up a severe fire of musketry on her decks. Lastly, the *Leander*, hitherto nothing could be done to get off the *Culloden*, advanced with the intention of anchoring athwart hawse of the *Orient*; but the *Franklin* being so near ahead that there was not room for him to pass clear of the two, he took his station athwart hawse of the latter.

This description will serve to convey an accurate idea both of the plan of attack and of the mode in which it was carried into execution. Though fiercely contested and sanguinary, the issue of the battle was never for an instant doubtful. The first two ships of the French line had been dimasted within a quarter of an hour after the commencement of the action, and the others had suffered so severely that victory was already certain. At half past eight o'clock the third, fourth, and fifth, were taken possession of; and about nine a fire broke out in the *Orient*, which soon mastered the ship, illuminating the contending fleets with the light of the conflagration. About ten o'clock the ship blew up with an explosion so tremendous that the firing immediately ceased on both sides, and for a time no sound was heard to break this awful pause, except the dash of her shattered yards, masts, and timbers falling into the water from the great height to which they had been projected. The firing recommenced with the ships to the leeward of the centre; and at daybreak the *Guillaume Tell* and the *Généreux*, the two rear ships of the enemy, formed the only portion of their line which had colours flying. Not having been engaged, these ships cut their cables in the forenoon and stood out to sea, accompanied by two frigates, being the only portion of the enemy's fleet which escaped. It is needless to add that the victory was complete. Of thirteen sail of the line, nine were taken and two burnt; and of four frigates one was burnt and another sunk. The British loss in killed and wounded amounted to eight hundred and ninety-five; while of the French three thousand one hundred and five, including the wounded, were sent on shore by cartel, and five thousand two hundred and twenty-five perished. About two hours after the commencement of the action, Nelson received a severe wound on the head from a piece of langridge shot; and Captain Westcott of the *Majestic* fell. Brucey was killed before the fire broke out which destroyed his noble vessel. He had received three wounds, yet would not leave his post; but a fourth cut him almost in twain, and he died like a hero on the deck. From the description of this battle, or rather naval conquest, it must be obvious that its triumphant success was owing to a skilful repetition, with necessary variations, of the manœuvre which had decided the victory at Camperdown; and in fact Nelson, although not acquainted with Lord Duncan, wrote to him, soon after the battle, to tell his lordship how "he had profited by his example."

From the time of the battle of Actium, by which the so-

vereignty of the Roman empire was decided, no naval victory was ever attended with consequences so immediately and obviously important as this. The French directory had concealed their intended enterprise from the Ottoman Porte, which lays claim to the sovereignty of Egypt, but has never been able to make its claim fully effectual. The grand signior, however, considered the present attempt as an act of hostility against himself; and the maritime victory above mentioned encouraged him to declare war, in the name of all true Mahomedan believers, against that host of infidels which had invaded the land from which the sacred territory of Mecca is supplied with bread. In Europe similar consequences took place. The irresistible career of Bonaparte had compelled Austria to submit to peace, upon terms which left France in a state of most dangerous aggrandizement. But as this victorious chief, with the best part of his veteran army, was now held under blockade by the British fleet in a distant country, the hopes of Austria began to revive, and there seemed reason to expect, that by renewing the contest, her ancient rank in Europe might be recovered. The king of Naples entered into these views with great eagerness, and rashly declared war against France, without waiting for, and following, as he ought, the movements of the greater powers. The empress of Russia was now dead, and her son Paul had succeeded to the throne of the Czars. The empress had never contributed more than her good wishes towards the war which the other powers of Europe had waged against France; but her son, a man of a furious and passionate character, had not the sense to follow the same cautious policy, or to remain a quiet spectator of the issue of a contest against the French republic; and, encouraged by the naval victory of the Nile, which seemed to insure the absence of Bonaparte and his army, he declared his willingness, as far as his finances would permit, to join in a new combination against France.

Thus, by the victory of the Nile, Great Britain was enabled to procure allies, willing to send abundance of troops against her enemy, provided she consented to defray the necessary expense. In the mean time, the acquisitions and losses of Britain were nearly equally balanced in other quarters. An armament sailed towards the island of Minorca, and a descent was effected near the creek of Ad-daya. Here a body of Spaniards threatened to surround the first division of the invading army; but they were soon repulsed, and our troops gained a position from which they might have attacked the enemy with advantage, if the latter had not retired in the evening. The army seized the post of Mesacada, and a detachment took the town of Mahon and Fort Charles. It was expected that the principal stand would have been made at Cividella, where new works had been added to the old fortifications; but the approach of the English drove the Spaniards within the walls of the town, and General Stewart summoned the governor to surrender it without delay. Intimidated by the movements of the troops and the appearance of the squadron, the garrison capitulated, and thus the whole island was reduced without the loss of a single man. But towards the end of the same year, the British troops, which during a considerable length of time had occupied a great number of positions upon the coast of the island of St Domingo, found it necessary to abandon the whole. The power of the French government there had nearly been annihilated by a negro commander, Toussaint-Louverture, to whom the British surrendered Fort-au-Prince and St Marc. The losses incurred in consequence of the un-

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¹ *Flint's Naval Battles*, pp. 234, 237. *Southey's Life of Nelson*, vol. i. p. 220 et seq. We beg here, once for all, to acknowledge our obligations to this admirable and authentic biography for the principal particulars of our condensed accounts of the battle off Cape St Vincent, the attack on Copenhagen, and the mighty crowning achievement of Trafalgar.

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Parliament assembled on the 20th of November; and in the speech from the throne it was observed, that the success which had attended our arms during the course of the present year had been productive of the happiest consequences, and promoted the prosperity of the country; that our naval triumphs had received fresh splendour from the memorable action in which Lord Nelson had attacked a superior enemy, and turned an extravagant enterprise to the confusion of its authors; that the magnanimity of the emperor of Russia and the vigour of the Ottoman Porte had shown that these powers were impressed with a just sense of the present crisis; that their example would be an encouragement to other states to adopt that line of conduct which was alone consistent with security and honour; that our preparations at home had deterred the enemy from attempting to invade our coasts; that in Ireland the rebellion had been suppressed; that under the pressure of protracted war, the produce of the public revenue had been fully adequate to the increase of our permanent expenditure; that the national credit had been improved, and commerce flourished in a degree formerly unknown. The debates which occurred in the House of Commons upon this occasion were not remarkably interesting, as the leading members of the old opposition were usually absent. Administration was chiefly opposed by Mr Tierney, Sir Francis Burdett, Sir John Sinclair, and Sir William Pulteney. In the House of Lords, Earl Darnley moved the usual address to the throne, which was seconded by Lord Craven.

As a prospect had now opened of reviving, upon a most extensive scale, the continental war against France, it became necessary to provide great pecuniary resources to subsidize the armies which were to be brought forward, especially by the Russians, the poverty of whose country could ill afford to sustain the expense of supporting armies in Italy or on the banks of the Rhine. The same difficulties, or rather doubts, however, concerning the prudence of carrying to its utmost length the British practice of borrowing money to defray the extraordinary expense incurred during each year of the war, which had led to an augmentation of what are called the assessed taxes, still induced the minister to attempt to raise a proportion of the extraordinary or war expenditure within the year, not by a loan, but by taxes to the requisite amount. With this view he brought forward what was accounted a very bold measure, namely, a project for imposing a general tax upon the income of every individual throughout the nation. Mr Pitt stated in the House of Commons his plan to be, that no one whose income was less than sixty pounds per annum should be obliged to contribute more than the taxes he already paid; but that every one who had an income of or beyond that amount should be additionally burdened, some in the proportion of ten per cent. and others at a lower rate. All who had two hundred pounds a year would be required to sign a declaration of their willingness to pay a certain sum, not less than a tenth part of their income, without particularizing the modes in which it accrued; and a scale of easy computation would be adjusted for the rest. If doubts of the fairness of the statement should arise, the commissioners might summon an individual before them, and demand upon oath a minute specification of his income; and if, on a continuance of suspicion, full proof of accuracy should not be adduced, they might fix the amount of contribution. If they should require more than a tenth, no relief would be allowed unless the books of the tradesmen, or the ordinary accounts kept by others, should be submitted to inspection. Having stated the outlines of his plan, Mr Pitt mentioned the data upon which he formed

an estimate of its produce. He was of opinion that the annual rent of all the land in England and Wales amounted to twenty-five millions of pounds sterling; a sum which, by the allowance of a fifth part for the exceptions under sixty pounds, and the modifications under two hundred pounds a-year, would be reduced to twenty millions. Six millions, he thought, might be assumed as the clear income of the land to tenants, the tithes might be valued at four millions, the produce of mines, canals, and the like, at three, the rents of houses at five, and the profits of the liberal professions at two; on all these heads it might be sufficient to allow an eighth part for Scotland, which would be five millions. Income drawn from possessions beyond seas might be stated at five millions; annuities from the public funds at twelve; and those of internal trade, mechanical skill, and industry, at twenty-eight millions. These calculations formed an aggregate of a hundred and two millions; and from this source about ten millions of supply were expected to arise. This measure was opposed, without success, by Mr Tierney, Sir John Sinclair, Mr Pulteney, and others. Its chief defects were its inequality in point of principle, and the falsehood it occasioned with a view to evade it when carried into practice. Its inequality in point of principle is extremely obvious; because, under the tax upon income, a man without capital who earned two hundred pounds per annum by his industry, paid the same tax to government with a man living in idleness and enjoying a revenue of the same amount upon a land estate. In its collection this tax presented to merchants, and all other persons whose income depends upon their own industry, a powerful temptation to represent the amount of the latter as extremely low. It was expected, indeed, that the vanity of appearing wealthy and prosperous would counteract this tendency; but it was soon found that, in a commercial community, the love of gain is not easily subdued by any other passion; and as a general understanding soon prevailed among men with regard to each other's feelings upon this subject, nobody regarded his neighbour as unprosperous, merely because he had reported his own income to government at a low rate.

The fear of a French invasion had in a former age induced the English nation so far to overcome their own prejudices as to consent to an incorporating union with Scotland. The rebellion in Ireland, together with the dread that by means of French aid Ireland might be dismembered from the British empire, as the American colonies had been, now produced a sense of the necessity of doing that which ought to have been done three centuries before this date; that is, of uniting Ireland to Britain, by incorporating into one the heretofore distinct legislatures of the two islands. The measure was at this period very practicable, because Ireland was in fact under the dominion of forty thousand troops, who had been collected to crush the rebellion, and protect the island against the French; and because the friends of government were too much intimidated by the confusion and the scenes of bloodshed which had recently occurred there, to venture to oppose vigorously a measure which promised for the future to preserve the tranquillity of the country inviolate. On the 31st of January Mr Pitt proposed the measure in the British House of Commons. He observed, that a permanent connection between Britain and Ireland was essential to the true interests of both countries; and that, unless the existing connection should be improved, there was great risk of a separation. The settlement of the year 1782 was so imperfect, that it substituted nothing for that system which it demolished; and it was not considered as final even by the ministers of the time. It left the two realms with independent legislatures, connected only by the identity of the executive power; a very insufficient

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tie, either in time of peace or of war, and inadequate to the consolidation of strength, or the mutual participation of political and commercial benefits. The case of the regency exhibited a striking instance of the weakness of the connection; and if the two parliaments had differed on the subject of the war, the danger of a disjunction would have been seriously alarming. The entire dissociation of the kingdom was one of the greatest aims of our enemies; and as their eventual success in Ireland would expose Britain to extreme peril, the establishment of an incorporative union, by which their views might be effectually baffled, was a necessary act of policy. Among the advantages which would accrue to Ireland from an incorporation with Britain, he mentioned the protection which she would secure to herself in the hour of danger; the most effectual means of increasing her commerce and improving her agriculture; the command of English capital, and the infusion of English manners and English industry, necessarily tending to meliorate her condition; whilst she would see the avenue to honours, distinctions, and exalted situations in the general seat of empire, opened to all those whose abilities and talents enabled them to indulge an honourable and laudable ambition. The question was not what Ireland would gain, but what she would preserve; not merely how she might best improve her situation, but how she might avert a pressing and immediate danger. In this point of view her gain would be the preservation of all the blessings arising from the British constitution. As the supposed loss of national independence formed, in the minds of many, a strong objection to the scheme, he argued that this would be a real benefit; that the Irish would rather gain than lose in point of political freedom and civil happiness; and that though a nation possessing all the means of dignity and prosperity might justly object to an association with a more numerous people, Ireland, being deficient in the means of protection and civil welfare, could not be injured or degraded by such a union with a neighbouring and kindred state as would connect both realms by an equality of law and an identity of interest. Mr Sheridan opposed a union, as particularly unreasonable, amidst the irritation which at this period prevailed in Ireland; and he deprecated the accomplishment of the object by means of force or corruption. The measure, however, was approved of by a very large majority; and in the House of Lords the same subject was afterwards discussed with a similar result. But in the Irish parliament the proposal was resisted with such vehemence, that administration, finding themselves supported only by a small majority, thought fit to avoid pressing the matter further at this time.

During the present year the British power in India was greatly augmented, and its territory extended, by the fall of Tippoo Sultan, the son and successor of Hyder Ali. From the time when this prince had been compelled by Lord Cornwallis, in 1792, to surrender one half of his dominions, it was understood that sooner or later he would make an attempt to recover what he had lost. It would even seem that he had entertained hopes of aid from the French, and that with this view he had privately sent envoys to the Isle of France, to attempt to form a connection with the present French rulers. But when intelligence reached India of the expedition to Egypt, and the victory of the Nile, the British governor-general demanded from Tippoo Sultan an explanation of his views; and after some fruitless negotiation, a British army under General Harris invaded the territory of Mysore, where they found in a bad state of preparation for war. After some slight encounters the British army encamped before Seringapatam on the 6th of April; but it was not till the 2d of May that the besieging batteries began to breach the wall. On the

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4th, during the heat of the day, the place was stormed, and Tippoo himself perished fighting gallantly at one of the gates of the fortress. His dominions were seized by the British, who bestowed a portion of them upon the Mah-rattas and the nizams their ally; whilst part was reserved under the direct sovereignty of the East India Company, and the remainder nominally bestowed upon a prince of the family which had lost its power by Hyder's usurpation. The substantial authority over this last-mentioned portion of Tippoo's dominions, however, was in truth retained by the British government; and as the nizams themselves soon became entirely dependent upon the British power, the whole peninsula of Hindustan, with the exception of the Mahratta states, which evidently could not long remain unsubdued, might now be considered as under the dominion of Great Britain.

In Europe the present campaign proved extremely eventful. The French directory had been more anxious to establish its own power at home, than careful to maintain the armies upon the frontiers and in the conquered countries in a proper state of force and efficiency. A French army under General Jourdan advanced into Silesia in the month of March, but was encountered and beaten at Stockach by the Archduke Charles. The importance of the possession of Switzerland instantly displayed itself. The vanquished French army immediately crossed the Rhine into Switzerland, and in that mountainous country contrived to make a stand during the greater part of the summer. The Austrians advanced as far as Zurich, of which they obtained possession; but before they could proceed further, the French armies, having been reinforced towards the end of the season, were enabled in their turn to assume the offensive.

In Italy the French manœuvred unskilfully at the opening of the campaign. Instead of concentrating their forces, they attempted to retain possession of the whole of that country, and were thus beaten in various engagements at different points. The combined Austrian and Russian army was commanded by the Russian general Suwarof, who pressed upon the French with incredible activity and energy; carrying on a multiplicity of sieges, and bringing his troops together with wonderful celerity, whenever his enemy attempted to take advantage of the manner in which his forces were scattered. Macdonald, with the Neapolitan army, was defeated on the Trebbia; Moreau, who succeeded Joubert, killed at the commencement of the battle, was beaten at Novi; and in a number of combats of less magnitude the Austro-Russian army proved almost uniformly successful. The result of the whole was, that before the campaign terminated, Suwarof had driven the French out of Italy, with the exception of Savoy and the Genoese territory. But this was not accomplished without a great loss of men in sieges and battles, in which the hardy warriors of the north suffered very severely. Their leaders depended for success more upon the intrepidity of their troops, and the promptitude with which they rushed into action, than upon the skilful dispositions with which they arranged their force or harassed their enemy. Hence it happened that, amidst all Suwarof's victories, no instance occurred of any column of French troops being compelled to surrender without fighting, nor was any advantage gained but by the efforts of superior force exerted in open battle. Such a warfare, carried on against a single enemy by a combined army, could not long be successful. The Austrian officers complained loudly of their northern allies as men destitute of military skill, who wasted armies without a proportional return of conquest; whilst, on the other hand, the Russians censured their associates as destitute of proper spirit, and as protracting the war by an ill-timed caution.

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Thus terminated on the eastern side of France this active and brilliant campaign. The allies remained masters of Italy; but France was still enabled to menace that country, as well as Germany, by retaining possession of Switzerland. In the meanwhile the British attempted, with the aid of Russian auxiliaries, to drive the French out of Holland. On the 27th of August, a landing was effected under Sir Ralph Abercromby at the mouth of the Texel; and the Zuyder Zee was immediately entered by a British fleet under Admiral Mitchell. Upon this the Dutch admiral, Storie, surrendered the fleet under his command, alleging that his men refused to fight. The ships were twelve in number, and eight of them mounted from fifty-four to seventy-four guns. Here, however, the effectual success of the expedition terminated. The Duke of York afterwards assumed the command, and forces amounting to thirty-five thousand men were landed; but it was soon discovered that the invasion had been ill concerted and ill directed. To have afforded a prospect of success, the invading army should have been landed in the vicinity of Rotterdam, which was full of Scotsmen, and where the supporters of the stadtholder were numerous; and then advanced rapidly into the centre of the country, to encourage the numerous enemies of the French to come forward in favour of the invaders. Instead of this the army was disembarked at the extremity of a long and narrow neck of land, having the sea on both sides, where the French and Dutch were able to arrest their progress for a considerable time with a mere handful of troops. The unusual wetness of the season, which greatly injured the roads, also added to the difficulties with which the invaders had to struggle; and the British commander was at length under the necessity of withdrawing his troops to the point at which they had originally disembarked. Here a convention was entered into,

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by which it was stipulated on the one hand that he should not injure the country, and that a number of French prisoners in England should be released; whilst, on the other hand, it was agreed that the Duke of York should be permitted to retire unmolested.

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At the end of this campaign the French government underwent a new change. After the conquest of Egypt Bonaparte had invaded Syria, and subdued or conciliated most of the native tribes; but his career of victory was stopped at St Jean d'Acre by the Turkish governor of that town, assisted by the British under Sir Sidney Smith. He was forced to raise the siege of that place, after fifty-nine days of open trenches, and delivering five unsuccessful assaults; and having returned into Egypt, and destroyed a Turkish army at Aboukir, he ventured upon a step which is without example in the history of modern Europe. Having learned from an old newspaper the great reverses which the French armies had experienced in the early part of the campaign, and the general discontent produced by these misfortunes, he resolved to trust to fortune and return to France. With this view he secretly embarked, along with a select party of friends, on board a small vessel, leaving the command of his army, which was now completely insulated in the country, to General Kleber, an officer of high reputation for military genius and enterprise; and after escaping a thousand perils he landed safely at Frejus, in the south-east of France. The unexpected arrival of an officer who had never fought in Europe without success was welcomed by the public at large as a happy event; and in the first moment of joy little inquiry was made as to the manner in which he had abandoned his army, an act which in any other circumstances would have been regarded as one of the greatest of military crimes. Finding a party willing to second his views, Bonaparte now took advantage of the satisfaction occasioned by his arrival, together with the discontents arising from the corruption and mismanagement of the directorial administration, to usurp the government, cashier the directory, and to dissolve the representative legislature.

The British parliament was assembled as early as the 24th of September, in order to provide for an augmentation of force, which was thought necessary to give effect to the invasion of Holland, an enterprise of the success of which sanguine hopes were at that time entertained. The speech from the throne, after recommending the propriety of permitting to a considerable extent the voluntary service of the militia, in order to augment our forces abroad, stated that our prospects had been improved beyond the most sanguine expectation; that the deliverance of Italy might now be considered as secured; that the kingdom of Naples had been rescued from the French yoke, and restored to the dominion of its lawful sovereign; that the French expedition to Egypt had been productive of nothing but calamity and disgrace, whilst its ultimate views against our eastern possessions had been utterly confounded; that there was every reason to expect a successful result from our efforts for the deliverance of the United Provinces; and that to our ally the emperor of Russia we were in a great measure indebted for the favourable change in the general posture of affairs. It was further stated that, in pursuance of the recommendation of the British parliament, his majesty had communicated to both houses of parliament in Ireland their sentiments respecting a union with that kingdom.

In consequence of the recommendation from the throne, an act was passed, authorizing his majesty to receive into the army volunteers from the militia regiments, and some measures of finance were adopted; but government having received intelligence of the failure of the expedition against Holland, parliament was suddenly adjourned. In

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Reign of George III. the meanwhile affairs on the Continent began to assume a most unpropitious aspect. The emperor of Russia, being exasperated at the defeats sustained by his troops towards the close of the campaign, became dissatisfied with his allies; and there was reason to dread that his irascible and unreasonable temper might lead him not merely to desert but to quarrel with them. In the meanwhile Bonaparte, under the title he had assumed of First Consul of the French Republic, resolved to signalize his acquisition of power by an attempt to procure peace. With this view he thought proper to address a letter, signed by himself, to the king of Great Britain. In this document, after announcing his own appointment to the office of first magistrate of the republic, he asked, "Is the war which for eight years has ravaged the four quarters of the world to be eternal? Are there no means of coming to an understanding? How can the most enlightened nations of Europe, powerful and strong beyond what their safety and independence require, sacrifice to ideas of vain grandeur, commerce, prosperity, and peace? How is it that they do not feel that peace is of the first importance, as well as the highest glory?" "France and England," he added, "by the abuse of their strength, may still for a long time, for the misfortune of all nations, retard the period of their being exhausted; but, I will venture to say it, the fate of all civilized nations is attached to the termination of a war which involves the whole world." This letter was transmitted through the medium of an agent of the French government, who resided at London for the sake of managing the exchanges and other affairs relative to prisoners of war.

But Lord Grenville, as secretary of state for foreign affairs, informed the agent who had transmitted Bonaparte's letter, that his majesty could not depart from the usual forms of transacting business, and therefore, that the only answer to be returned would be an official note from himself. In this note his lordship stated that the king wished for nothing more than to restore tranquillity to Europe; that he had only made war in defence of his people, against an unprovoked attack; and that it would be in vain to negotiate while the same system continued to prevail in France which had ravaged Holland, Switzerland, Germany, and Italy. "While such a system therefore prevails," continued his lordship, "and while the blood and treasures of a powerful nation can be lavished in its support, experience has shown, that no defence but that of open and steady hostility can be availing. The most solemn treaties have only prepared the way to fresh aggression; and it is by determined resistance alone, that whatever remains in Europe of stability for property, for personal safety, for social order, or the exercise of religion, can be preserved. For the security, therefore, of these essential objects, his majesty cannot place reliance on the mere renewal of general professions of pacific dispositions. Such professions have been repeatedly held out by all who have successively directed the resources of France to the destruction of Europe, and whom the present rulers have declared all to have been incapable of maintaining the relations of amity. Greatly will his majesty rejoice whenever it shall appear, that the danger to which his own dominions and those of his allies have been so long exposed has really ceased; whenever he shall be satisfied that the necessity of resistance shall be at an end, and, after so many years of crimes and miseries, better principles have prevailed, and the gigantic projects of ambition, endangering the very existence of civil society, have at length been relinquished. But the conviction of such a change can result only from the evidence of facts." His lordship then went on to say, with insulting irony, that the best pledge of the reality and permanence of such a change would be the

restoration of the princes of the house of Bourbon; that such an event would at once remove all obstacles in the way of negotiation, confirm to France the unmolested enjoyment of its ancient territory, and give tranquillity to other nations; that, however, his majesty did not limit the possibility of solid pacification to this mode, and made no claim to prescribe to France what should be the form of her government; that he only looked to the security of his own dominions, of his allies, and of Europe; that unhappily at present no such security existed, nor any sufficient evidence of the principles by which the new government would be directed, or even of its stability; and that in this situation, it remained for him to pursue, in conjunction with other powers, the exertions of a just and defensive war.

As one of the principal objects on account of which Bonaparte had commenced this negotiation was probably to cast upon Great Britain the odium of continuing the war, he persevered in this purpose with uncommon dexterity. Appearing not to be disconcerted by the first rejection of his offers, he continued the correspondence through the medium of Talleyrand, his minister for foreign affairs, who, in a masterly note in answer to that of Lord Grenville, dissected the official communication of the British minister with consummate ability, and refuted the various statements and views which it embodied. He began with recriminating respecting the origin of the war, and presented a picture very differently sketched and coloured from that which Lord Grenville had portrayed in his letter. The charge of aggression brought against the French nation was haughtily repelled, and retorted on the coalesced powers, particularly on the British government. After expatiating on this subject, the French minister observed, that a sincere desire for peace ought to lead the parties to the discovery of the means of terminating the war, rather than to apologies or recriminations respecting its commencement; that no doubt could be entertained of the right of the French nation to choose its own government; that this was a point which could not be decently contested by the minister of a crown which was held on no other tenure; that at a time when the republic presented neither the solidity nor the force which it now possessed, negotiations had been twice solicited by the British cabinet, and carried into effect; that the reasons for discontinuing the war were become if possible more urgent; that, on the contrary, the calamities into which the renewal of the war must infallibly plunge the whole of Europe, were motives which had induced the first consul to propose a suspension of arms which might likewise influence the other belligerent powers;—and he concluded with pressing this object so far as to propose the town of Dunkirk, or any other, for the meeting of plenipotentiaries, in order to accelerate the re-establishment of peace and amity between the French republic and Great Britain. In the answer of the British minister to this note, the recrimination of aggression was as contemptuously repelled as it had been haughtily urged. Referring to his former note, Lord Grenville observed, that the obstacles which had been presented rendered hopeless for the moment any advantages which might be expected from a negotiation; that all the representations made with so much confidence by the French minister, the personal dispositions of those in power, the solidity and consistence of the new government, were points which could not be admitted as motives for opening a negotiation, since these considerations remained yet to be proved; and that the only evidence must be that already explained by his majesty, namely, the result of experience and the evidence of facts.

On the 22d of January copies of this correspondence were presented to the British parliament, along with a message from his majesty, announcing that he relied on the

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keep an army of sixty thousand men to preserve tranquillity in the interior of France; every act of his government was supported by force; and if he even were sincere, it was hazardous too much to hazard all on his single life. What reliance could be placed on the unanimity of the French people? Men of the blackest characters had been appointed to situations of the greatest trust; men infamous for professed principles of anarchy had been raised to places of confidence and power; and those who were judges in the sanguinary tribunals of Robespierre were now exalted to a distinguished rank in the republic. His lordship concluded by disclaiming on the part of administration any wish to consider the restoration of the French monarchy as the object of the war.

The Duke of Bedford opposed the noble secretary's motion, and contended, that all the objections against negotiation might have been urged against the negotiations which the ministers themselves had formerly opened at Lisle. He considered the conduct of the British government on the present occasion as unwise, because provoking and unconciliatory. He thought that, in a correspondence with the present French government, all discussion about the original commencement of the war ought to have been avoided. Whether England or France was the first aggressor, was a question to be reserved to posterity. The wild scheme of restoring the French monarchy was *ane qua non*, if not of peace, at least of negotiation; for notwithstanding that the noble secretary had denied the charge, yet whilst he pointed out the impossibility of treating with the French government during all its stages to the present, and insisted upon vigorous hostilities being the only means of our security, no inference could be drawn, but that the war must be continued till monarchy was re-established. If the restoration of monarchy was not the object, what was it? Were ministers contending that we ought to wait for a more favourable opportunity of entering into negotiation? Was it to be obtained by railing at Bonaparte? There were no terms sufficiently strong to censure the littleness which attacked his character, in order to ruin him in the estimation of the French nation; as if by so doing, we could negotiate with more effect, or gain a fairer prospect of peace. His grace contended that no confidence was to be reposed in our present continental allies; and as a severe scarcity at this period prevailed in the country, this circumstance was made use of as an additional argument against persevering in the war. The first consul, doubtless, sought to make a peace advantageous to himself and the nation over which he presided: like all other statesmen, his motives might not be influenced by humanity; it was to be supposed his aim would be to satisfy the French people, and consolidate his own power. As to the abuse which ministers threw upon his character, it was their constant habit to abuse every ruling power in France. But whenever they had been driven by the voice of the people to negotiate, their former ill language had never been any impediment. The duke concluded with a motion for an address recommending a negotiation for peace.

Lord Borington supported the views of ministers. But Lord Holland reprobated their conduct throughout the contest. At one time they asserted that the ambition of France was so insatiable, that she would listen to no terms; they were now driven from that pretext, and urged that a peace would be insecure. As to the ambition of the enemy, it was a consideration of weight in the arrangement of terms, not a preliminary objection preclusive of treaty. What proof could be given of the abandonment of dangerous views, but a negotiation in which moderation would be displayed. Was it reasonable to suppose that he would admit that the guilt of the aggression lay with

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France? This was a point which ought not to have been discussed. The object was to treat upon actual circumstances and the real grounds of dispute. Suppose that Bonaparte, desirous to attain peace by any means, should sit down to consider how he could succeed; what does the note allow him to do? He would find that the restoration of the hereditary line of kings was the only case in which a speedy peace would be admitted as possible; in fact, therefore, this restoration was the *sine qua non* in which immediate negotiation was admissible with ministers. But surely if the ambition of the republic was so formidable, we could not forget this ground of apprehension when we talked of restoring the house of Bourbon. Had we forgotten their proverbial ambition, and was their restoration the remedy for evils arising from such a source? We had now taken up the principle, so much objected to by Jacobins, of distinguishing between the people and their government. But what was the conduct of the French? Bonaparte distinctly renounced this principle in the letter to the king, and acknowledged the title and the character of his majesty's government. The note of our ministers was a manifesto to the royalists, and formed for that purpose alone. Lord Holland further stated, that the people at large disapproved of the abrupt rejection of Bonaparte's overtures; he therefore gave his most decided support to the amendment. The Earl of Carnarvon would not consider the avowal of our ministers as a refusal to treat for peace, or a declaration of eternal war; it was a call upon the house and the country to pause before they rashly suffered themselves to enter into a negotiation with an unsettled government. He did not expect any extraordinary faith to be manifested by Bonaparte, more than by any other chief or chiefs; but although he would be best pleased with the restoration of monarchy in France, in all times, in monarchies as well as republics, aristocracies, and every other species of government, good faith in treaties was preserved and exemplified only as long as it was the interest of the parties to maintain it. So little integrity had history left on record, that, at the very time they were signed, a secret intention was often indulged to violate them at a particular period. The address, as moved by Lord Grenville, was then carried by a great majority.

In the House of Commons Mr Dundas moved a similar address, which gave rise to a similar debate. Mr Dundas said, that the leading feature of the French revolution was a disregard of all treaties, and a contempt for the rights of other powers; and in proof of this assertion, he considered it as necessary merely to recite the names of Spain, Naples, Sardinia, Tuscany, Genoa, Geneva, Modena, Austria, Russia, England, and Egypt, with Denmark and Sweden, though at all times neutral states. Britain had not at this time any reasonable cause to suppose that a change of principles had taken place. The Jacobinical form of government was indeed at an end; but in substance and essence all the qualities of the revolutionary government were in as full force at this moment as they were in the days of Robespierre. Mr Whitbread asserted, that, had it not been for the interference and ambition of the other powers of Europe, the French revolution would have assumed a very different character from that which it now exhibited. He remarked, that other powers had treated neutral states no less unjustly than had been done by the French; Lord Harvey and Lord Hood had ordered the French ministers to be dismissed from Florence; and by threats we had compelled Genoa to dismiss her French inhabitants. He compared Bonaparte with Suwarof, and the invasion of Egypt by France with that of Poland by Austria, Russia, and Prussia, whose friendship we had frequently courted. Mr Thomas Erskine entered at great length into the question, whether France or Great Britain

had been guilty of the original aggression in the war, and contended that the British government had engaged in it unnecessarily, and persisted in it without necessity. Mr Pitt, on the other hand, affirmed that the French leaders had themselves begun the war, on the principle that it was necessary to consolidate the revolution. With regard to the proposal to negotiate with their present leader, it was impossible to discuss fairly its propriety, without taking into consideration his personal character and conduct. Mr Pitt then expatiated on the conduct of Bonaparte at Campo Formio, in the Milanese, Genoa, Modena, Tuscany, Rome, Venice, Switzerland, and Egypt. His arts of perfidy, he said, were commensurate with the number of treaties; and if we traced the history of the men in this revolution whose conduct had been marked by the most atrocious cruelty, the name of Bonaparte would be found allied to more of them than that of any other within these ten eventful and disastrous years. From these facts the house might judge what reliance might reasonably be placed on this conqueror, and what degree of credit might be given to his professions. It had been observed, indeed, that whatever had been his character, he had now an interest in making and preserving peace. This was a doubtful proposition. That it was his interest to negotiate, would be readily acknowledged, and to negotiate with this country separately, in order to dissolve the whole system of the confederacy on the Continent; to paralyse at once the arms of Russia, of Austria, or of any other country which might look to us for support; and then either to break off his separate treaty, or, if he should have concluded it, to apply the lesson taught in his school of policy in Egypt, and to revive at his pleasure those claims of indemnification which may have been reserved to some happier period. Under all these circumstances of his personal character and his newly acquired power, what security had he for retaining that power but the sword? His hold upon France was the sword, and he had no other. But was the inference to be drawn from these considerations, that we ought in no case to treat with Bonaparte? No; but we ought to wait for the evidence of facts. At present there was nothing from which we could presage a favourable disposition in the French consuls. There was the greatest reason to rely on powerful co-operation from our allies; the strongest indication in the interior of France of a disposition to resist this new tyranny; and every ground to believe, that if we were disappointed of complete success, the continuance of the contest, instead of making our situation comparatively worse, would make it comparatively better. With regard to the negotiation at Lisle in 1797, to which allusions had been made, the Jacobin system of prodigality and bloodshed, by which the efforts of France had been supported, had at that period driven us to exertions which had exhausted the ordinary means of defraying our immense expenditure, and led many who were convinced of the necessity of the war to doubt the possibility of persisting in it. Under this impression we negotiated, not from the sanguine hope that its result would be permanent security, but from the persuasion that the danger arising from peace in these circumstances would be less than the continuance of war with inadequate means. Mr Fox was decidedly of opinion that France, at the commencement of the war, was the defending party. The aggressions of Austria and Prussia could not be denied by any impartial person; nothing could be more decidedly hostile than their proceedings; they scrupled not to declare to France that it was her internal concerns, not her outward action, which provoked them to confederate against her; they did not pretend to fear her ambition, her conquests, her troubling her neighbours; but they accused her of new-modelling her own government. In all this he

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Reign of George III. was not seeking to justify the French, either in their internal or external policy. On the contrary, he thought their successive governments had been as execrable in various instances as any of the most despotic and unprincipled governments which the world had ever seen. Men bred in the school of the house of Bourbon, once engaged in foreign wars, would naturally endeavour to spread destruction, and form plans of aggrandisement, on every side; they could not have lived so long under their ancient masters without imbibing the insatiable ambition and restless spirit, the perfidy and the despotism, inherent in the race; they had imitated their great prototype, and through their whole career of crimes had done no more than trace the steps of their own Louis XIV. Are we for ever, continued Mr Fox, to deprive ourselves of the benefits of peace, because France has perpetrated acts of injustice? With the knowledge of these acts, we had treated with them twice, and ought not now to refuse to do so? Much had been said of the short-lived nature of military despotism; yet such was the government erected by Augustus Cæsar, which endured six hundred years. Indeed, it was too likely to be durable wherever it was established. Nor was it true that it depended on the life of the first usurper. Half of the Roman emperors were murdered, yet the tyranny continued; and this, it was to be feared, would be the case in France. On a division, however, the address was carried by a very large majority.

The great measure of a legislative union with Ireland was carried into effect during the present session of parliament. Administration had found it necessary to delay this matter in consequence of the opposition in the Irish parliament; but during the recess they had obtained a more ample majority; and as the British parliament had already, on Mr Pitt's motion, passed resolutions in favour of the union, the project was formally introduced to the Irish parliament on the 5th of February 1800, by a message from the lord-lieutenant, in which his excellency stated that he had it in command from his majesty to lay before the houses of legislature the resolutions of the British parliament, and to express his majesty's wish that they would take the same into their most serious consideration. After a long and spirited debate, the ministry prevailed by a majority of forty-three. The distinguished abilities of Mr Grattan were once more displayed on this interesting occasion. In the debate which took place on proposing the first article of the union, he opposed the measure with such vehemence, that the chancellor of the exchequer accused him of associating with traitors, and of disaffection to the government; but the reply of Mr Grattan was so pointed and severe, that the chancellor conceived himself under the necessity of resenting it by a challenge, and a meeting having taken place in consequence, he was wounded in the arm. The question, however, was carried by a considerable majority; and as the discussion proceeded, the numbers of opposition appeared to diminish. The last struggle, as it may be deemed, occurred on the 13th of March, when Sir John Parnell moved to petition his majesty to call a new parliament, in order that the sense of their constituents might be more fully ascertained; but this motion was also overruled. In the mean time the business proceeded with little opposition in the House of Lords, which, on the 24th of March, adopted the whole of the articles of union with few alterations; and soon afterwards both houses waited on his excellency with a joint address to this effect. No time was now lost in submitting the measure anew to the British parliament. On the 2d of April, a message from his majesty was presented to both houses of parliament, communicating the resolutions of the Irish parliament in favour of an incorporating union between the two kingdoms, and recommending the speedy

conclusion of a work so interesting to the security and prosperity of the British empire. In the House of Lords the measure was opposed by Lord Holland, on the ground that a union at this time was not the spontaneous offer of the parliament of Ireland, uninfluenced by corruption or menace; but the articles were afterwards carried in a committee of the house, after some debates of no great importance. In the House of Commons Mr Pitt stated that the principal act of the treaty, that which fixed the share of representation Ireland was to have in the united parliament, was founded upon a comparative statement of the population of both kingdoms, as well as the revenue of both. The number of members fixed for the counties and two principal cities was sixty-eight; and that for the most considerable cities, towns, and boroughs, was thirty-one, who would be selected without partiality. He next adverted to the arrangements respecting the House of Peers, and the members to be returned; and observed, that as the members for the Commons of Ireland were in number nearly double those of Scotland, the same rules would be observed with the peerage, which therefore was to consist of thirty-two members. It was also understood, that such peers of Ireland as might not be among the twenty-eight temporal peers, should be allowed to sit in the united parliament until elected. The only article consisting of minute details related to the apportionment of the shares of the revenue of each country respectively. Mr Grey opposed the union on nearly the same grounds as Lord Holland had done in the Upper House. It had been asserted in a speech of the lord-lieutenant to the Irish parliament, that five sevenths of the country, and all the principal commercial towns, except Dublin, had petitioned in favour of the union. But this only meant that nineteen counties had presented petitions, and that these counties constitute five sevenths of the surface of Ireland. He admitted the petitions in favour of the union; but by what means were they obtained? The lord-lieutenant, who, besides being the chief civil magistrate, is commander of a disciplined army of a hundred and seventy thousand men, and able to proclaim martial law when he pleases, procured these petitions, which were signed by few names, and those by no means the most respectable. But fortunately there were many petitions on the other side, not obtained by solicitation and at illegal meetings, but at public assemblies, of which legal notice had been given. Twenty-seven counties had petitioned against the measure; the petition from the county of Down was signed by seventeen thousand respectable, independent men; and all others were in a similar proportion. Mr Grey then adverted to some of the principal arguments of the unionists; and concluded by moving an address to his majesty for a suspension of all proceedings relative to the union, till the sentiments of the people of Ireland could be ascertained. Mr Sheridan represented the measure as an act of tyranny towards the people of Ireland, which must become the fatal source of new discontents and future rebellions. Mr Grey's motion was, however, rejected by an overwhelming majority.

Early in the session mention had been made by opposition of the unfortunate invasion of Holland by the British forces; but ministers declined entering upon the subject, as the expedition had been ordered on under the superintendence of Mr Secretary Dundas, and that gentleman, soon after the meeting of parliament, had gone down to Scotland in the depth of winter, without any ostensible business; a circumstance which gave rise to suspicions that some dissatisfaction existed at court on account of the result of the Dutch invasion, or the manner in which the Duke of York had been supported in it by the administration at home. On the 10th of February, however, the

Reign of George III. subject was introduced in the House of Commons by Mr Sheridan, who moved for an inquiry into the causes of its failure. He treated the capture of the Dutch navy as of little value, or rather as pernicious, on account of the example of mutiny which it exhibited on the part of the seamen whom we had received into our service; he admitted that the restoration of the stadholder was a justifiable motive for our interference, but contended that Britain had treated the people of Holland ill, by obliging them to enter into the present war, and avoiding to promise a restoration of their colonies in case of a successful invasion; he asserted that the expedition itself was ill arranged, as the army after its landing had no means of moving forward on account of the want of necessaries, and, instead of delivering the Dutch, was under the necessity of entering into a capitulation for its escape, and of holding out, as an inducement to enter into this capitulation, a threat of destroying for ever the commerce of that very people whom we had embarked to save; and he contended, that to vindicate the honour of the British army, it was necessary to inquire into the cause of its misfortunes upon this occasion. Mr Dundas defended the expedition against Holland with his usual dexterity. He stated its object to be threefold: first, to rescue the United Provinces from the tyranny of the French; secondly, to add to the efficient force of this country, and diminish that of the enemy, by gaining possession of the Dutch fleet; and, lastly, by hostile operations in Holland, to oblige the French to weaken their armies in various other quarters. Mr Dundas contended, that at the commencement of the expedition a great probability existed of the success of all these objects; two of them did actually succeed, and only one failed. With regard to the capture of the fleet, he declared himself astonished that a doubt should exist about the value of such an acquisition. That fleet had been absolutely destined for the invasion of our dominions; along with it we took nearly seven thousand seamen, all of whom were liable to be employed in the French fleet, and forty thousand tons of shipping, which might have annoyed our commerce. By the invasion of Holland, also, the French had been compelled to weaken their other armies, which gave success to Suwarof in driving them from Italy, and to the archduke on the Upper Rhine and in Switzerland. They had indeed succeeded in defending Holland; but, as the price of this success, they had been severely pressed in every other quarter. At the moment our enterprise was undertaken, it was doubtful whether they would send their reinforcements thither, or to other parts of the Continent. They had poured prodigious reinforcements into Holland, by which means we were unable to rescue it from their yoke; but the result was, that they had lost every other point which they had contested during the whole campaign. With respect to the conduct of the enterprise, never was a commencement more prosperous than that of the late expedition. Sir Ralph Abercromby had sailed for the Helder on the 13th of August, and every thing promised the most rapid success. On the 14th came on the most extraordinary hurricane that ever blew from the heavens; it was found impossible to land a single soldier on any part of the coast of Holland; and this continued till the 27th. The consequence was, that the enemy knew where our army must land, and their troops came in shoals to oppose us; seven thousand men were collected; and as they were superior in number, Sir Ralph could not land his men to advantage. The ardour of the soldiers and the gallantry of the commander were never excelled on any occasion. Without any thing but their muskets and bayonets, against cavalry and artillery, they made good their landing, and by it they secured the Dutch fleet. It was alleged that the troops had no means of drawing their waggons; but

they had no waggons at all, and could not possibly have landed them had they been there. Instantly on their landing they could not want them; for all they had then to do was to secure a landing place and a post of communication. Sir Ralph had to consider what position he should take till the 1st of September, when reinforcements would arrive. The same tempest prevented the Russian troops from arriving to reinforce the army; they did not come till the 18th. The Duke of York offered to the Russian general, D'Hermann, to delay the attack, if he thought his men were not sufficiently recovered from the fatigues of the voyage; but the general requested that the attack should be made, with a promptitude and alacrity which reflected the highest honour upon him; and this ardour led him into the field two hours sooner than the time appointed. The army, however, was gloriously successful until a late hour in the day. General d'Hermann and his troops were in possession of the village of Berghen, and crowned with victory, till his zeal led him beyond a given point, and turned the fate of the day. When the attack was made the French amounted to seven thousand, and the Dutch to twelve thousand men; yet, notwithstanding this superiority of force, our troops fought and conquered; but the French continually pouring in reinforcements, the duke was advised to accede to the terms of an armistice, which was by that time mutually wished for. The duke yielded to this advice; and, by so doing, consulted the dictates of reason and humanity. Mr Dundas contended that our army returned with as much honour as they entered Holland. The Duke of York, indeed, agreed to give up eight thousand French prisoners on condition that his retreat should be unmolested; but he could not be wrong in doing so, because our prisons were overloaded with them; and he did not recede from any one article in which national dignity was concerned.

Mr Tierney supported the proposal for an inquiry. He disputed the advantages said to result from the expedition, and contended, that to a secret committee, or in some other form, ministers ought to account for their conduct, and exonerate themselves from suspicions too strong to be removed without proof. It was unconstitutional, and an insult on the house, to say this could not be done consistently with the preservation of secrecy. General Abercromby landed on the 22d of August with ten thousand men; he got possession of the Helder; he was reinforced by General Don on the 27th. Was it not strange that fifteen thousand men, headed by an able general, and going by invitation, should think it imprudent to advance? Had the Dutch been well affected, why did they not declare themselves? No French troops were then in Holland to keep them in awe. Why did not the Duke of York sail at the same time with General Don? Why were all our forces sent to one place, and forty-three thousand men cooped up in a narrow peninsula where but few could act at a time? It was strange that ministers, who were so fond of making diversions, did not think of making a diversion in some other quarter. This was a point which only military men could determine; and the house was bound to examine officers, that the truth might be known. The capitulation, he said, had fixed an indelible blot on the national character. A king's son, commanding forty thousand men, had capitulated to a French general who had only thirty-five thousand. Mr Addington observed, that having maturely and dispassionately considered the nature of the proposed inquiry, it appeared to him to rest upon two grounds: first, the propriety of judging any measure by its event; and, secondly, that in consequence of a failure, there was a necessity for investigation. It ought to be recollected, that the worst concerted plans had often produced the most brilliant success, and the best terminated

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Reign of George III. in disaster. No human being could command success, and no existing government control the elements. The proposed inquiry was accordingly negated by a very large majority.

During the present year the war proved extremely eventful. The army which Bonaparte had left in Egypt under General Kleber being disgusted by the desertion of their leader, a negotiation was entered into by Kleber with the Turkish grand vizier and Sir Sidney Smith; the result of which was, that the French agreed to abandon the whole of Egypt, on condition of being permitted to return unmolested to France. The convention was concluded at El Arish on the 24th of January; and the immediate return of this discontented army to France might have proved dangerous, if not fatal, to the newly-established power of the first consul. But here the usual fortune of Bonaparte prevailed. The British government, suspecting that some proposal of this kind might be made, sent secret orders to Vice-admiral Lord Keith not to consent to any arrangement which might leave so large an army at liberty to act in Europe, or which should not include the surrender of all the ships in the port of Alexandria. The consequence was, that Lord Keith refused to ratify the treaty of El Arish which Sir Sidney Smith and the Turkish grand vizier had concluded, and detained as prisoners General Desaix and a number of troops which had been sent from Egypt. The French general Kleber immediately intimated to the Turks a determination to resume hostilities. He attacked and totally routed their army, consisting of forty thousand men, in the neighbourhood of Grand Cairo; and multitudes perished by slaughter and in the desert, while the French remained complete masters of the country. When it was too late, an order arrived from Britain to permit General Desaix and the troops along with him to land in France, and to fulfil every part of Sir Sidney Smith's treaty; but the state of affairs had changed; Kleber had been assassinated by a fanatical Arab, and his successor, Menou, refused to evacuate Egypt; so that it became necessary, at a future period, to send an army from Britain to drive the French out of the country which they had proposed to evacuate without firing a shot or shedding a drop of blood.

The Austrian armies in Germany and in Italy were respectively commanded by General Kray and by General Melas. The campaign was conducted on the part of the French government with great ability and decision. It had been publicly announced in all the French newspapers that the armies were to be reinforced as powerfully as possible; and that an army of reserve was to be formed in a central position between Germany and Italy, from which the armies might be supplied with fresh troops according to the events of the war. Dijon was mentioned as the headquarters of this army of reserve; and it already amounted to upwards of forty thousand men. Nobody suspected that any important plan of operations or military stratagem was concealed under the affected notoriety of this arrangement. Accordingly the Austrians commenced the campaign by an attack upon Massena in the Genoese territory; and after a succession of obstinate conflicts the French were driven into Genoa, where they sustained a siege, till compelled to surrender from want of provisions. Whilst Melas besieged Genoa, and even pushed forward his parties through Nice into the ancient French territory, Bonaparte in person suddenly repaired to Dijon and joined the army, to the assembling of which Europe had paid little attention, on account of the appellation which it had received of an army of reserve; and immediately advancing, he crossed the Alps by the Great St Bernard, and descended into the Milanese with little opposition. At the same time powerful reinforcements joined him from Switzerland, of which the

French troops continued to hold possession. Bonaparte thus placed himself in the rear of the Austrian general, and hazarded every thing upon the fortune of a single battle. He was accordingly attacked on the plain of Marengo, near Alessandria; and, as the Austrians were greatly superior in cavalry and artillery, they proved victorious during the greater part of the day. The French wings were turned, the centre division was broken, and scarcely six thousand men stood firm at any one point, when General Desaix, late in the action, arrived with a reinforcement of six thousand troops, though fatigued by a rapid countermarch of several leagues. At this moment the battle seemed to be irretrievably lost. The French had been thrown back in the utmost disorder upon Montebello, where Lannes was still maintaining a furious though desperate resistance; the whole field of battle was in possession of the Austrians; the French troops were crowded together in a disorganized mass, in which the enemy's artillery were committing the most frightful havoc; and only one effort more seemed necessary on the part of the Austrians, with their fine cavalry, in which arm they were greatly superior, to complete the destruction of the French army. Matters were in this state when Desaix arrived, who, perceiving the desperate situation of affairs, instantly hurried his division into action. Surprised at, but not unprepared for this renewed attack, the Austrians developed a powerful force to oppose it; Desaix fell mortally wounded; and his division were on the point of being overwhelmed, when an event almost unexampled in war not only saved the French army from destruction, but totally changed the fortune of the day, and converted a disastrous defeat into a complete victory. While a body of Austrian grenadiers, six thousand strong, were advancing to the charge along a broad causeway, and carrying all before them, they were suddenly and furiously attacked in flank by General Kellerman, at the head of six hundred horse, which he had managed to conceal among some mulberry trees. A panic immediately seized them, and believing themselves assailed by the mass of the French cavalry, they threw down their arms. The whole affair passed in an instant, and even the victors themselves were astounded at their own success. Bonaparte, however, lost not a moment in profiting by this extraordinary turn of fortune. The French rallied with their usual promptitude on Desaix's division, which still preserved some degree of order; resumed their former positions; recommenced the battle, which they had a few minutes before given up for lost; and, animated with the enthusiasm inspired by Kellerman's extraordinary success, drove the Austrians from the field. In the French official account of this memorable conflict, which decided the fate of all Italy, no mention whatever is made of Kellerman's gallant and decisive attack; and it reflects little credit on the memory of Bonaparte, that, though he afterwards heaped wealth and titles in boundless profusion on the man who had not only saved him and his army from destruction, but converted a disastrous defeat into a splendid triumph, he should never have made any public admission of the unparalleled achievement which changed the fortune of the day. The service was probably considered as too great to be acknowledged, because it could never be sufficiently rewarded; and it ill comported with the character of Bonaparte to admit that, in genius, promptitude, and energy, he could ever be surpassed by any of his lieutenants. On the following day Melas entered into negotiation, and, as the price of an unmolested passage to the Austrian states, he agreed to abandon all Piedmont, and the basin of the Po, and to surrender twelve of the strongest fortresses in Europe.

On the side of Germany the French under General Moreau were scarcely less successful. They passed the Rhine

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in the neighbourhood of Strasburg, where they were opposed by the Austrians. But this was only a feigned attack. Speedily retreating, the main body of their army descended from the mountains of Switzerland, and crossed the Rhine in the rear of the Austrian army near Schaffhausen. After a desperate engagement, the Austrians were defeated with the loss of ten thousand men, of whom four thousand were taken prisoners. As the mode of attack had been unforeseen, and was consequently unprovided for, the loss of magazines and baggage was immense. In another and harder fought battle, at Moskirch, the Austrians lost upwards of eight thousand men. At Biberach, Augsburg, and Hochstet, the French were equally successful; and the result was, that the Austrians were under the necessity of crossing the Danube, leaving the French masters of the electorate of Bavaria, and in a condition to invest Ulm. A general suspension of hostilities was now agreed to, by which both parties retained possession of their actual positions; and a negotiation for peace was entered into between the French and Austrians, which produced an attempt to negotiate on the part of Great Britain; but as the French also demanded a naval armistice, the negotiation was dropped; and after a considerable delay, during which the Austrian minister at Paris concluded a treaty which his court afterwards disowned, preparations were made for re-opening the campaign. But the French ultimately consented to renew the armistice with the Austrians, on condition of obtaining possession of the important fortresses of Ulm, Ingolstadt, and Philippsburg. These armistices and negotiations proved of great service to the French. The consent to a truce in the midst of an unexampled career of victory gave an appearance of moderation to the new consular government; whilst the conclusion of a treaty at Paris, to which the Austrian government afterwards refused to adhere, induced neutral nations to consider Bonaparte as anxious for the attainment of peace. Hence the wonderful success which attended his arms, during the early part of the campaign, was far from rousing the jealousy of the other states of Europe. The northern nations eagerly courted his alliance; and the emperor Paul of Russia, actuated by the natural instability of his temper, and an admiration of military success, not only entered into a close alliance with Bonaparte, but seized the British vessels in his ports; whilst the Danes, Swedes, and Prussians, formed a confederacy for evading the right claimed in war by maritime states, of preventing their enemies from being supplied with naval stores by means of neutral vessels.

In the meanwhile Great Britain was greatly distressed by a scarcity of provisions, and riots broke out in London and some provincial towns. On this account parliament assembled on the 11th of November, and the principal discussion which occurred in it related to the scarcity which prevailed throughout the country, and involved in great difficulties both the middle and lower classes of society. The members of opposition asserted that the war and the scarcity were closely connected; whilst Mr Pitt and his colleagues contended that a more obvious cause might be found in the deficiency of the two preceding crops, owing to cold and rainy seasons. A royal proclamation was issued in the beginning of December, exhorting all heads of families to reduce the consumption of bread by at least one third, to abstain from the use of flour in pastry, and to restrict the consumption of oats and other grain by horses; and acts of parliament were at the same time passed prohibiting the exportation, and offering bounties upon the importation of grain. These measures, however, were of a very doubtful character. By increasing the alarm of scarcity they induced wealthy persons to buy up grain, and to withhold it from the markets; the

prohibition of exportation of provisions was unnecessary, when a better price could be obtained in Britain than else-where; and the same high prices afforded a sufficient bounty for importation.

At the commencement of the following year government laid an embargo on all Russian, Danish, and Swedish ships in British ports; so that Great Britain was now at war with nearly all Europe. Austria, indeed, ventured to renew hostilities; but the French general Moreau, having defeated the Archduke John with tremendous loss, at Hohenlinden, drove back the Austrian army upon their capital, advancing within seventeen leagues of Vienna; whilst at the same time signal defeats were sustained by them both in Italy and in Franconia. From the necessity of their affairs, therefore, the Austrians were compelled to sue for peace, which was accordingly concluded at Luneville. The Netherlands and the Milanese were resigned; France extended her boundary to the Rhine; and Tuscany was relinquished by the grand duke, who was to receive an indemnification in Germany; whilst, on the other hand, the city of Venice and a portion of its ancient territory were given up to Austria. The German princes who suffered by the treaty were to receive an indemnification out of the ecclesiastical states of the empire; thereby weakening still further the influence of the house of Austria. By this treaty the French became masters of Europe to the southward of the Rhine and of the Adige.

The commencement of the year 1801 was marked in Great Britain by the termination of Mr Pitt's administration. When this event was announced to the public, it created no small degree of astonishment. Since Mr Pitt had come into office a new generation had sprung up; and a succession of the most extraordinary public transactions had occurred, amidst all of which that minister, with his kinsman Lord Grenville, and his friend Mr Dundas, had remained firmly established in power. The authority and influence of these men had in some measure interwoven itself in the opinions of the people, and they were surrounded by a train of powerful adherents, dependent on their patronage; whilst, at the same time, Mr Pitt himself retained such a degree of popularity as caused his dismissal or resignation to appear a very bold measure in the present state of affairs. The ostensible cause assigned for Mr Pitt's dismissal obtained little credit with any one. He was represented as having promised to the Irish Catholics an equalization of privileges with their fellow-subjects, on condition of their acquiescing in the treaty of union; but it was pretended that, since his majesty had been persuaded to oppose the measure, as contrary to his coronation oath, the ministry, in such a state of matters, could no longer honourably remain in office. Of the true cause of this change little is publicly known. It does not seem necessary, however, to search into secret history for an explanation of a transaction which may be sufficiently accounted for on principles which must be obvious to all. The influence acquired by Lord North, arising from the patronage he enjoyed during the American war, enabled him, by combining with others, to establish a formidable interest in the legislature. But the power possessed by him was trifling when compared with that which Mr Pitt and his friends possessed. The war which Mr Pitt had conducted had been expensive in a degree altogether unexampled in preceding times; whilst the circumstances under which it commenced had united, as a party under him, almost all the persons of property in the kingdom. During his long administration, too, the crown possessed, in a more direct manner than formerly, the increasing patronage of India; and hence the leading members of this administration might be regarded as having attained a degree of power and influence which could not easily be shaken,

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and which might prove extremely inconvenient, when held by any combination of subjects in a free country. In such circumstances, it was natural for an experienced prince to wish for a change. Mr Pitt had been originally taken into office as the agent of the crown in the House of Commons, to support the royal prerogative there, against a combination of powerful and accomplished men; he had enjoyed great popularity, and had been considered as the man best qualified to conduct the war of the French revolution; and as he knew the high rank which he held in public estimation, and treated the House of Commons with but little deference, it is not improbable that in the cabinet he may have presumed upon the indispensable importance of his own services, and, accounting himself necessary to the administration of the empire, arrogated a degree of independence not at all graceful nor becoming in a mere instrument of the crown. Some, however, have thought that his retirement on this occasion is to be ascribed to a totally different cause; that as he had been mainly instrumental in plunging the country into the war with France, and as all his schemes for humbling that nation had proved abortive, he could neither admit his error, nor adopt the only means which now remained, in some degree to atone for it; and that he desired to escape the mortification of negotiating a peace with a power which he had so often denounced, and which he wished to exclude from the pale of political and social relations in Europe. And, in support of this view, it may be mentioned that, on the dismissal of this administration, a resolution appears to have been at the same time adopted by the British court, seriously and earnestly to endeavour to obtain peace upon any tolerable terms.

With regard to the general merits of Mr Pitt's administration, we are still probably too much involved in the passions and prejudices which it excited to be able to appreciate them with sufficient candour and intelligence. He derived great advantage from the copious and stately eloquence which he at all times displayed in the House of Commons; and certainly no man ever possessed so completely the art of managing the people of England, and retaining their attachment, at the same time that he continued to possess the confidence of his sovereign. Although he obtained the government of the British empire at a very youthful age, the prudence of his conduct and the magnitude of some of his designs entitle him to a very high rank as a statesman. His sinking fund, though not contrived by himself, and though based on erroneous principles, was a great and important measure, as it contributed to sustain the national credit at a period of unexampled difficulty and embarrassment, and enabled the country to weather a contest which might otherwise have proved fatal to its independence. His commercial treaty with France was also, whatever the political economists may say to the contrary, a measure recommended by the soundest wisdom. The most ambiguous circumstances in Mr Pitt's public conduct were those which related to parliamentary reform, to the trial of Mr Hastings, and to the slave-trade, in which he adopted the popular side in the debate, although the court was known to be hostile to his avowed sentiments, which accordingly were never successful. The most difficult question relates undoubtedly to the war with France. Though by the forms of the British constitution Mr Pitt was responsible for engaging in this war, and for continuing in it, yet as he was not actually the head of the state, it is possible that the interference of Britain might not originate with him, and that he had only the alternative of engaging in the war or of relinquishing his power. If the war is to be considered as advised and conducted by him, he is responsible for all its consequences, the enormous aggrandisement of France,

the subjugation of the weaker states, and the accumulation of that intolerable load of debt which hangs like a mill-stone round the neck of this country, and encumbers every effort it can make to develop its natural resources. Had Britain originally remained neutral, or rather, had she negotiated in favour of the independence of France, brought into hazard as it was by the combination of the great military powers, that country would have been confined within her ancient boundary; Italy, Switzerland, and Holland would have retained their independence; and the strength of Austria would have remained unbroken; or, if Britain had withdrawn early from the contest, and avoided urging and subsidizing the continental powers, until they were successively vanquished, the same result might have ensued. On the other hand, if the war is to be considered as undertaken to overturn the principles of the French, it was undoubtedly successful to a certain extent, as it compelled them to abandon these principles, and to have recourse to a military usurpation; but it ought to be remembered, that to Britain as a nation the political principles of the French were of no importance whatsoever, whilst their permanent aggrandisement was calculated to bring into hazard our very existence as an independent nation, Mr Pitt and his friends called forth the resources of the country for the support of the war to an astonishing extent. Immense treasures were lavished in supporting our allies in fruitless or absurd expeditions, and in schemes which served only to augment the public burdens, and to increase the influence of the crown by the extension of its patronage. The acquiescence of the public in the war was preserved by keeping the minds of men in a state of constant alarm, from the fear of danger to the constitution, in consequence of the alleged disaffection of a body of the people; and in this manner a constant spirit of persecution was maintained throughout the country, which thus seemed to be ruled rather by a jealous faction than by a legitimate government. The concluding measure of Mr Pitt's administration, the union with Ireland, is entitled to much praise. It was suggested by the course of events, and tended to remedy a great defect in the constitution of the British empire, the want of consolidation into one united political body.

Of the associates of Mr Pitt, Lord Grenville, who acted as minister in the House of Lords, was the principal in England, and Mr Dundas in Scotland, and perhaps also in the rest of the empire. This last gentleman possessed the greatest share of power ever intrusted to any Scotman since the union, excepting for a short time to Lord Bute. During a considerable length of time he appears to have conducted almost the whole public business of that vast assemblage of nations, in all the climates of the globe, which constitutes the British empire; and under his patronage, and that of his friend Mr Pitt, a numerous body of dependents rose to the possession of boundless opulence; whilst they themselves, engrossed by the pursuits of ambition, were understood to have been somewhat careless of their private concerns.

At the time when the change of ministry took place the king became affected with a severe illness, supposed to be the result of anxiety and agitation of mind. In making choice of a new prime minister, however, he avoided admitting into power the party which had opposed the war; and selected Mr Addington, who, as we have already mentioned, was originally patronized by Mr Pitt, and who, as speaker of the House of Commons, had gained approbation by his good temper, prudence, industry, and conciliating manners. This gentleman appears to have obtained from his predecessors in office a promise of support in parliament; and he was therefore represented throughout the country as nothing more than a nominal minister, holding a tem-

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porary situation, which, on the first opportunity, he was to relinquish in favour of Mr Pitt and his friends. And this account of the state of affairs derives plausibility from the actual support which the new minister received from these gentlemen, and from the influence which they evidently retained in the nomination to all inferior offices. Mr Addington's appointment as first lord of the treasury and chancellor of the exchequer was followed by the nomination of Lord Eldon to the office of lord high chancellor, of Lord St Vincent to that of first lord of the admiralty, of Lord Hawkesbury as secretary of state for the foreign department, of Lord Pelham for the home department, and of Colonel Yorke as secretary at war. Lord Eldon was succeeded by Sir Michael Pepper Arden, then created Lord Alvanley, as chief justice of the common pleas; and Mr Addington by Sir John Mitford, afterwards Lord Redcrosse, as speaker of the House of Commons. Sir William Grant was made master of the rolls, and Mr Law and Mr Percival attorney and solicitor generals.

On the 2d of February the parliament of Great Britain and Ireland was opened; but as the king's illness immediately succeeded that event, the new administration did not obtain formal possession of office until the month of March, and during the interval the old ministers continued to hold their former situations. At the opening of the imperial parliament, as it was now called, the speech from the throne expressed great satisfaction that the crown would now be able to avail itself of the advice of the united parliament of Great Britain and Ireland; hoped that this memorable era, distinguished by a measure calculated to consolidate the strength of the empire, would be equally marked by the energy and firmness which the present situation of the country so peculiarly required; and stated that the court of Petersburg had treated our representations of the outrages committed against our ships and property, and against Englishmen, with the utmost disrespect, and that acts of injustice and violence had aggravated the first aggressions. It mentioned that a convention had been concluded between Petersburg, Copenhagen, and Stockholm, the avowed object of which was to establish a new code of maritime law, inconsistent with the rights and hostile to the interests of this country; and that the earliest measures had been taken to repel this confederacy, and to support those principles essential to the maintenance of our naval strength. It recommended an inquiry into the high price of provisions, and promised a termination of the present contest whenever it could be done consistently with security and honour.

When the usual address was moved, some discussion occurred in both houses regarding the actual state of affairs, more particularly as connected with the combination of the northern powers against Britain. In the House of Commons Mr Grey deplored the prospect of a war with all Europe. Russia had evidently been guilty of the grossest violence and injustice towards this country, in the confiscation of the property of our merchants, and in the treatment of our sailors; but the emperor accused the British government of violating a convention by which he was to receive the island of Malta as the reward of his co-operation against France; and the truth of this assertion ought to be investigated. Concerning the northern confederacy, Mr Grey remarked, that the principles on which it was founded were of no recent origin, as indeed was very generally known. Mr Pitt, who still acted as chancellor of the exchequer, declared, that with every one of the three northern powers, independently of the law of nations, we had on our side the strict letter of engagements by which they were bound to us. In the convention signed between Great Britain and Russia, the latter bound herself to use her efforts to prevent neutral powers

from protecting the commerce of France on the seas or in the ports of France; and Denmark and Sweden had expressed their readiness to agree on that very point which they were now disposed to contend. We did not indeed know the precise terms of their new convention; but as its existence and general object were acknowledged, we must necessarily act upon the supposition of their hostility.

In March Mr Grey moved for an inquiry into the state of the nation. We were now, he said, in the ninth year of a war with France, and threatened with a war by all the maritime states of Europe, if not actually involved in it; we had added £270,000,000 to the capital of our national debt, and above £17,000,000 to our annual taxes; we found ourselves opposed to France, which was now extended in territory, increased in population, and supported by all the states of the north. We were opposed to her with diminished means, exhausted strength, and stripped of every ally. It was, therefore, incumbent on the representatives of the people to enter into a serious inquiry into the means most likely to restore to us security and happiness. The conquests we had made during the war had not compensated our disasters or the acquisitions made by France. Her frontier now extended to the Rhine, to the Alps, and to the ocean; yet all these possessions we had consented to abandon as the price of peace which ministers might have made with France confined within her ancient limits, while our own country was prosperous and happy. Our losses were thus irretrievable, and our triumphs empty. There was almost no shore from the Texel to the Adriatic which had not witnessed the defeat of our forces and the disgrace of our arms. The unfortunate attempt upon Dunkirk, the shameful retreat through Holland, the evacuation of Toulon, the abandonment of Corsica, and the expedition to Quiberon, were all fatal proofs of ill-concerted schemes; but the late expedition against Holland was more disgraceful than the rest, because it terminated in a capitulation to an inferior force. Administration had acted with such imprudence that even our very allies were now converted into enemies. The Swedes and other neutral nations had complained that their trade was molested, their ships detained, and justice refused them in our courts, or so long delayed that it was useless. These were points which undoubtedly deserved investigation. Nor did the internal condition of the country less require consideration. The sum of £270,000,000, as already mentioned, had been added to the national debt, exclusive of imperial and other loans, and the reduction by the sinking fund; and yet the ex-ministers alleged that they left the country in a flourishing condition. Yet every Englishman, from diminished comfort, or from positive distress, felt this declaration to be an insult. The situation of the sister kingdom was also alarming in the extreme. Since the recall of Earl Fitzwilliam, Ireland had been the scene of transactions shocking to humanity. Was it now tranquil? Though rebellion had been crushed in the field, it lurked in secrecy; the mass of the population was disaffected; and nothing prevented the separation of Ireland from Britain but the inability of France to send a force to assist the rebels. Upon these grounds he called for an inquiry into the actual state of affairs, and demanded the support of the new administration, a testimony of their disapprobation of the measures of their predecessors.

Mr Dundas defended, with plausible statements and arguments, the conduct of the war. The principle which he laid down was, that war ought to be directed to the destruction of the commerce and colonial possessions of the enemy, including their maritime power, which must depend upon their commerce. It was hardly possible for England to be long at war with France without being in-

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Mr Pitt, after expressing his respect for the new administration, observed that no point had been more disputed than that of confidence in ministers. By some people it was held that no person was entitled to it, till he had given proofs of having merited it. But this never could be carried in substance to the letter; for whoever entered into any employment, must at first be new to it: there could be no experience without trial; but when persons had been tried in one situation, and had acquitted themselves well in it, it was a rule to give them credit when they entered into another, until proof of their incapacity or misconduct appeared. He then lavished encomiums on Mr Addington, on Lord Hawkesbury, and on Earl St Vin-

cent, and asked the gentlemen of the opposition if they knew any one among themselves superior to Lord Hawkesbury, excepting one, Mr Fox, whose transcendent talents made him an exception to almost any rule. Of the other individuals composing the new administration, much might be said; but he would only add, that it showed little reflection or consideration to affirm that the present ministers were unentitled to a constitutional confidence; and the house was bound by the best principles of policy to wait to see the conduct of the servants of the crown before they withheld it. Upon the subject of the retirement or dismissal of the late administration, he contended that his majesty had a right to part with his servants, and his servants to retire, without any explanation being given to the public. Concerning the affairs of the Irish Catholics, and their connection with the dismissal of administration, he stated, that a memorandum had been sent, in the name of a noble lord at the head of the executive government of Ireland, who thought it essential to communicate the grounds of the change of administration to persons more immediately connected with the Catholics; and it had been at his express desire that this communication had been made, and the motives explained to them which led to the change, in order to prevent any misrepresentation. Emancipation of the Catholics was a term he disclaimed. He never understood the situation of the Catholics was such as to need what deserved to be called emancipation; but he thought the few benefits which they had not yet anticipated might easily have been added to those so bountifully conferred on them in the present reign, not as a matter of right, but of liberality and political expediency. Had such a measure preceded the union, indeed, it would have been rash and destructive; and even now, if any attempt was made to push it so as to endanger the public tranquillity, or to pervert the affections of any of his majesty's subjects, the ex-ministers would be forward and firm in resisting it. But he hoped the day would come when such a measure might be revived, and carried in the only way in which he wished to see it carried, conformably to the general tranquillity of the empire. To him it had appeared of such importance, that, being unable to bring it forward as a measure of government, he did not conceive it possible for him, with honour, to remain in the same situation; and he wished it to be understood, that whenever the same obstacles did not exist, he would do every thing in his power to promote its success. He denied, however, that any of those who had retired from office had so pledged themselves to the Catholics as to be under the necessity of resigning their offices because they could not perform their promise; and he also denied that ever the Catholics supposed they had received such a pledge. An expostulation was natural, but a pledge had never been given. He concluded that the British government had justice on its side, or rather was supported by the law of nations, in the claims which it now maintained to search neutral vessels for military stores on their way to the enemy, and to declare particular French or other ports under blockade, to the effect of thereafter having a right to arrest neutral vessels attempting to enter them.

Mr Fox observed, that it was undoubtedly a doctrine recognised by the law of nations, that free bottoms did not make free goods; but he doubted much the propriety of discussing it at this critical juncture. He thought our claims upon this subject were extended too far when they were made to reach to naval stores, as these had not been at former periods considered as contraband. He then adverted to the successes of the war, which had been enumerated by Mr Dundas. On the navy he bestowed merited praise, and also on the late first lord of the admiralty, assigning his merit as the reason for the constant

Reign of George III. and brilliant triumphs of the navy; whilst our military expeditions, though our troops were as brave as our seamen, had generally failed. In naval tactics almost every thing depended on the talents of the officers; whereas, in military movements, much depended on the original design. The boasted capture of islands was not the object of the war: our object had been to protect Europe against France; and how had we succeeded? Which of the two nations had been most aggrandised in the course of it? A country paying double its land-rent was in a state demanding inquiry. The war secretary had talked much about the diversion of war, and shown us its nature on his principles. He had sent the Duke of York and an army of thirty thousand men to the only neck of land perhaps in the world where a fifth part of their own numbers was equal to cope with them. Of the armistice of Hohenlinden, and the negotiation which followed it, Mr Fox spoke with indignation, reproaching the conduct of the minister, which had so fatally proved that eloquence was distinct from wisdom. Time had now evinced that all the great objects of the war were defeated, and that our allies had deserted us; and when no prospect of success remained, we might resort to negotiation. The same men who had rejected the proposals of Bonaparte with insolence, must approach with respect, suing for favour, to avoid participating in the disgrace. With regard to the Irish Catholics, no man ought to be deprived of his rights because he worshipped God according to the dictates of his own conscience; and it was a reflection upon parliament to say, as Mr Pitt had said, that he could not there propose a measure which he approved. He declared his belief that no such difficulty existed, but that the late minister might wish to retire for a season, till overtures of peace were made, which he could not make, without mortification, to the man whom he had insulted. He spoke of the change of administration as a fortunate occurrence. Some indeed might suspect, from the panegyric of Mr Pitt, that the new ministers were the less gaudy puppets, directed by those who had quitted their stations; and if they adopted the system of their predecessors, with the additional blame of being hostile to the Catholic claims, acting in this point from their own motives, they would be unworthy of confidence.

The new chancellor of the exchequer, Mr Addington, observed, that the degree of confidence which the House of Commons ought to extend to the present ministers, it was not for him to conjecture; they only asked for that portion of it which should be constitutionally reposed in persons duly appointed by his majesty, unless it was precluded by antecedent character and conduct. He then commented on all the leading points in dispute with the northern powers; and after stating the grounds of the principle asserted by this country, and referring to the exception made by existing treaties, gave it as his opinion that the right for which we contended was vital and fundamental, and could neither be abandoned nor compromised. Lastly, he felt it incumbent on him to declare that it was the determination of his majesty's servants to take such steps as appeared to them best calculated for the restoration of peace; that no form of government in France would obstruct negotiation; and that if there was a corresponding disposition on the part of the enemy, the grand object would be accomplished. The motion for inquiry was then rejected by a majority of more than two to one.

Notwithstanding the change of ministry, Mr Pitt brought forward the business of the supplies in the House of Commons. Their amount was £35,587,462; of which sum £15,800,000 was for the navy, £15,902,000 for the army, and £1,938,000 for the ordnance. The income tax

was now stated as only amounting to about £6,000,000. As some deficiencies of former estimates required to be provided for, Mr Pitt stated, that the whole charge of the two countries, for the service of the year, would amount to £42,197,000, which would be divided between the two countries thus: Great Britain for its fifteen seventeenths of the joint expense, and those charges which belonged separately to her, would have to defray, in round numbers, £37,870,000; and the charges falling upon Ireland would be £4,324,000. The sum of £25,000,000 was raised by way of loan, and new taxes were imposed upon paper, tea, houses, lead, the post-office, and various other articles. The income tax was also further mortgaged, so that the debt for which it was pledged amounted to £76,000,000.

In the meanwhile, to prevent the active co-operation of Denmark with Russia, and if possible to break up the northern confederacy, an armament was fitted out in the British ports, consisting of eighteen sail of the line, and as many frigates, sloops, bombs, fire-ships, and smaller vessels, as made the whole amount to about fifty-three sail. This fleet, under the command of Admiral Sir Hyde Parker, with Vice-admiral Lord Nelson as his second, sailed from Yarmouth on the 12th of March 1801, and soon afterwards reached its first rendezvous at the entrance of the Cattegat. The Danish navy at this time consisted of twenty-three ships of the line, with about thirty-one frigates and smaller vessels, exclusive of guard ships. The Swedes had eighteen ships of the line, fourteen frigates and sloops, seventy-four galleys and smaller vessels, besides gun-boats, all in a state of respectable equipment. The Russians had eighty-two sail of the line and forty frigates, and of these thirty-one sail of the line and a proportional number of frigates were in commission in the Baltic, being divided between Petersburg, Archangel, Cronstadt, and Revel; but their fleet was ill built, ill manned, ill officered, and ill-equipped; and, of the number in commission in the Baltic, probably not more than twenty sail of the line could have been put into a condition to act against an enemy. At this time the Swedes had eleven sail of the line at Carlscrona, ready for sea, and in tolerable fighting trim; the Danish fleet at Copenhagen consisted of ten sail of the line ready for sea, exclusive of about an equal number in an unserviceable state; and, assuming the available Russian force as above stated at twenty sail of the line, it thus appears that the entire effective strength of the fleets of the northern confederates amounted to forty-one sail of the line, besides frigates and smaller vessels. But as not more than twenty-five or twenty-six of these could by any means have been assembled at a given point, and as even the best of them were decidedly inferior to our ships in condition, equipment, discipline, and skill, eighteen, or even fifteen British sail of the line were more than a match for them. This explanation is necessary to show that the British government were not guilty of any rashness in sending to the Baltic a force apparently so small in comparison of that to which it was opposed; though they certainly deserve the strongest reprobation for allowing any petty consideration to prevent them from appointing Nelson to the command.

It was at first hoped that Denmark, notwithstanding her hostile demonstrations, would prefer negotiation to war; but this expectation having been disappointed, and the Danish government, instead of conciliation, having assumed a tone of open defiance, preparations were made for forcing the passage of the Sound, though in these much valuable time was lost through the irresolution of the admiral, Sir Hyde Parker. At length, however, the British fleet weighed anchor at six o'clock in the morning of the 30th March, and with a fine breeze at north-north-west

Reign of George III. entered the Sound in a line a-head, the van division commanded by Lord Nelson in the Elephant, the centre division by the commander-in-chief, and the rear division by Rear-admiral Graves. At seven the batteries at Elsinour, which had been represented as tremendous, commenced firing at the Monarch, which was the leading ship, and the other ships as they passed in succession; but the distance was so great that not a shot took effect, nor did any of the British ships fire in return except the van division, which only discharged a few broadsides. As the strait at Elsinour, however, is less than three miles across, a mid-channel passage would undoubtedly have exposed the ships to a fire from Cronenburg Castle, adjoining Elsinour, on the one side, and from the Swedish town of Helsingborg on the other; but the British having observed that the batteries of the latter mounted only eight guns of a small calibre, inclined to the Swedish shore, where not even a show of opposition was made, and passing within less than a mile of it, avoided a fire which, as proceeding from nearly a hundred pieces of cannon, could scarcely have failed to do much injury to the ships. About noon the fleet anchored at some distance above the island of Huen, which is about fifteen miles from Copenhagen; and the commander-in-chief, Vice-admiral Lord Nelson, and Rear-admiral Graves, accompanied by Captain Domett and the commanding officers of the artillery and troops (namely, the forty-ninth regiment, two companies of the rifle corps, and a detachment of artillery which had been embarked on board a division of the fleet in the Downs), proceeded in a lugger to reconnoitre the enemy's defences. These were soon ascertained to be of the most formidable description. It was apparent that the Danes could not be attacked without great difficulty and risk; and when a council of war was called in the afternoon, much as usual was urged to show the propriety of foregoing, or at least delaying, the attack. Councils of war never fight. But happily the opinion of Nelson prevailed, and he offered his services for the attack, requiring ten sail of the line and all the small craft. Sir Hyde Parker willingly accepted the tender, gave him two more line-of-battle ships than he asked, and wisely left every thing to his own judgment.

The force at Copenhagen was not the only obstacle to be contended with. The approach to it was by a channel extremely intricate and little known; and, to increase the difficulty of navigating it, the Danes had removed or misplaced the buoys. But Nelson himself saw the soundings made, and buoys laid in the outer channel, between the island of Saltholm and the Middle Ground, boating it upon this exhausting service until it was completed. An attack from the eastward was first meditated; but a second examination of the Danish position, on the 31st, and a favourable change of the wind, determined the vice-admiral to attack from the south. Accordingly, on the morning of the first of April, the British fleet removed to an anchorage within two leagues of the town, off the north-western extremity of the Middle Ground; a shoal extending along the whole sea front of the city of Copenhagen, and leaving an intervening channel of deep water called Kongstige, or King's Channel, about three quarters of a mile wide. In the course of the forenoon Nelson, accompanied by Captain Riou of the Amazon, reconnoitred for the last time the position which he was about to attack; and soon after his return at one o'clock the signal to weigh appeared at the Elephant's mast-head. It was received with a shout throughout the whole squadron, and promptly obeyed. They weighed with a light and favourable wind; the small craft pointed out the course distinctly; Riou led the way in the Amazon; and coasting along the edge of the right hand shoal or Middle Ground until they reached and partly rounded its southern extremity, the

squadron anchored off Draco Point just as the darkness closed, the headmost of the enemy's line not being more than two miles distant. Captain Hardy now proceeded in a small boat, under cover of the night, to examine the channel between the anchorage and the Danish line, and actually approached near enough to sound round the first ship of the latter, using a pole lest the noise of throwing the lead should occasion a discovery. Having completed his task, he returned about eleven o'clock, and reported to the admiral the depth of the water, and the practicability of the channel up to the Danish line. This was gratifying news to Nelson, though it added to his impatience, and prevented him from sleeping during the remainder of the night, the whole of which was spent in preparing instructions and receiving reports.

The force now about to be attacked was of the most formidable description. It consisted of eighteen vessels, all two-decked ships, but some of them old and dismantled, with frigates, prams, and radeaux, mounting altogether about six hundred and fifty guns, and moored in a line of about a mile in extent, flanked at the north end, or that nearest the town, by two artificial islands called the Trekroner or Crown Batteries, one of thirty twenty-four pounders, and the other of thirty-eight thirty-six pounders, with furnaces for heating shot, and commanded by two-decked block-ships. The entrance into the harbour and docks, which are situated in the heart of the city, was protected by a chain drawn across it, and also by some batteries on the northern shore, particularly the Trekroner already described; and, in addition to this, two seventy-four gun ships, Danemarck and Trekroner, a forty-gun frigate, two eighteen gun brigs, and several armed zebecs, provided with furnaces for heating shot, were moored in advantageous positions off the mouth of the harbour. Along the shore of Amak island, a little to the southward of the floating line of defence, were gun and mortar batteries; and as the Danes were animated by an enthusiastic spirit of patriotism, and eager by every possible means to repel the assailants, there was no want of men, skilful and brave, to work the guns, either aloft or on shore.

The day of the second of April broke, as Nelson had hoped it would, with a favourable, south-easterly wind; and the signal for all the captains to come on board the flag-ship was hoisted as soon as it could be seen. As circumstances prevented the admiral's plan of attack being strictly followed, it may suffice to state that all the line-of-battle ships were to anchor by the stern abreast of the different vessels composing the enemy's line, an operation for which they were already prepared by having cables out of their stern-ports. The Amazon, Blanche, Alcène, Arrow, and Dart, with two fire-ships, all under the direction of Captain Riou, were to co-operate in the attack on the ships stationed at the mouth of the harbour, and to act otherwise as circumstances might require. The bomb-vessels were to station themselves outside the British line, and to throw their shells over it; while the Jamaica, with the brigs and gun-vessels, was to take a position for making the southern extremity of the Danish line; and a similar station was assigned to the Desirée. It was also intended that the forty-ninth regiment, under Colonel Stewart, and five hundred seamen under Captain Freemantle of the Ganges, should storm the principal of the Trekroner batteries, the instant that its fire should be silenced by the cannonade from the ships. Between eight and nine o'clock the pilots, most of whom had been mates in Baltic traders, were ordered on board the Elephant. But as they hesitated about the bearing of the east and of the shoal, and the exact line of deep water, it became evident that their knowledge was not to be trusted. Nelson was extremely perplexed. The signal for action had been

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made; the wind was fair; not a moment was to be lost. They were urged to be steady, to be resolute, and to decide; but they wanted the only ground for steadiness and resolution in such a case; and Nelson had now reason to regret that he had not trusted to Captain Hardy's single report. At length Mr Alexander Biriary, the master of the Bellona, undertook to lead the fleet; and his proposal being acceded to, the captains returned to their ships, and at half-past nine the signal was made for the ships to weigh in succession, and advance to the attack.

The Edgar led the way; but the Agamemnon, which was next in order, having anchored rather outside than off the great shoal, could not weather it, and was obliged to bring up again in six fathoms water, where the current was so strong that, although she afterwards re-weighed, and continued for a long time to warp with the stream and kedge anchors, she was compelled again to bring up nearly in the spot from which she had last weighed. When the misfortune of the Agamemnon was discovered, the admiral made signal for the Polyphemus, which followed the Edgar; and the Isis steered after the Polyphemus. The Bellona, notwithstanding a fair wind and ample room, kept too close on the starboard shoal, and grounded abreast of the outer ship of the enemy. The Russell following the Bellona, also grounded; and although both were within range of shot, their absence from their intended stations was severely felt. Three ships of the squadron were now aground and comparatively useless; so that Nelson was compelled to begin the attack with one ship of the line less than he had calculated upon as absolutely necessary. In compliance with the wish of the pilots, each ship had been ordered to pass her leader on the starboard side, from a supposition that the water shoaled on the larboard; but, as Captain Hardy had proved, the water deepened all the way to the enemy's line. The Elephant, flag-ship, came next; but Lord Nelson, as soon as he perceived the state of the Bellona and Russell, ordered his helm to be put a starboard, and passed within those ships; and all the ships astern followed his example. By this act of promptitude on the part of the admiral, the greater part of the fleet were saved from going on shore. At the moment when Lord Nelson's squadron weighed, Admiral Parker's eight ships did the same, and took up a position somewhat nearer the mouth of the harbour, so as to menace the northern wing of the defence; but a nearer approach was impracticable in time to render any active service in the engagement.

The cannonade commenced at five minutes after ten, and for nearly an hour the principal ships engaged were the Polyphemus, Isis, Edgar, Ardent, and Monarch. By half-past eleven, however, the Glutton, Elephant, Ganges, and Defiance, got to their respective stations, as did also several frigates and smaller vessels, and the action now became general. The Desirée proved of great service in raking the Provosteen, and drawing part of her fire from the Polyphemus and Isis; but owing to the strength of the current, the Jamaica, with the gun-vessels, could not get near enough to be of any service in the action; and the bomb-vessels were not able to execute much. The absence of the Agamemnon, Bellona, and Russell, disconcerted the plan of the attack, and caused several of the British ships to sustain a heavier share of the enemy's fire than had been allotted to them, or they were well able to bear; and among the sufferers on this account was the Amazon frigate, which, along with four others under Captain Riou, had boldly taken a position right against the Trekroner batteries. The cannonade had continued three hours, and few if any of the Danish block-ships, praams, or radeauxs, had ceased firing, nor had the contest as yet taken a decisive turn to either side. Meanwhile the commander-in-chief, near enough to the scene of conflict to

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know the unfavourable accidents which had deprived Nelson of one fourth of his force, and yet too distant to know the real state of the contending parties, suffered the most dreadful anxiety: and from the reports made to him that signals of distress were flying at the mast-heads of two British line-of-battle ships, and the signal of inability on board a third; from observing the zig-zag course and slow progress of the Defence, Ramilies, and Veteran, which he had dispatched as a reinforcement; and from the distance of the London, which bore his flag, preventing his judging of the relative condition of the contending parties; Sir Hyde Parker was induced to throw out the signal for discontinuing the action. When this was reported to Nelson, he continued to walk the deck without appearing to take any notice of it. At the next turn the signal lieutenant met him, and having stated that the commander-in-chief had thrown out number thirty-nine, asked if he should repeat it. "No," replied Nelson, "acknowledge it;" and presently he called after the officer to know if the signal for close action was still flying. Being answered in the affirmative, he said, "Mind you keep it so;" and, after pacing the deck for some time, moving the stump of his lost arm in a manner which always indicated great emotion, he accented one of the officers thus: "Do you know," said he, "what is shown on board the commander-in-chief? Number thirty-nine." The officer asked what that meant. "Why, to leave off action." Then, shrugging up his shoulders, he exclaimed, "Leave off action! No, damn me if I do. You know, Foley," turning to the captain, "I have but one eye; I have a right to be blind sometimes;" and then putting the glass to his blind eye, in sportive bitterness, he exclaimed, "I really do not see the signal;" adding, after a momentary pause, "Damn the signal! Keep mine for closer battle flying. That's the way I answer such signals. Nail mine to the mast!" The three frigates and two sloops nearest to the London, however, obeyed the signal, and hauled off from the Trekroner batteries; when "the gallant, good Riou" was killed by a raking shot, which cut him in two, just as the Amazon presented her stern to one of the latter.

About half past one the fire of the Danes began to slacken, and at a little before two it had ceased along nearly the whole of their line. Some of the praams and light vessels had also gone adrift; but few if any of the vessels whose flags had been struck would suffer themselves to be taken possession of, and fired on the boats as they approached; whilst the batteries on the isle of Amak aided them in this irregular warfare. Nelson was justly irritated at this conduct on the part of the Danes; and at one time had thoughts of sending in the fire-ships to burn the vessels which had surrendered. But, as a preliminary measure, he retired into the stern gallery, and wrote to the crown prince of Denmark that celebrated letter, which will ever be memorable in the history of England: "Vice-admiral Lord Nelson is commanded to spare Denmark when she no longer resists. The line of defence which covered her shores has struck to the British flag; but if the firing is continued on the part of Denmark, he must set on fire all the prizes that he has taken, without having the power of saving the men who have so nobly defended them. The brave Danes are the brothers, and should never be the enemies, of the English." This letter was carried on shore with a flag of truce by Sir Frederic Thesiger, who found the crown prince at a Sally-port. Meanwhile a destructive cannonade was still kept up by the Defiance, Monarch, and Ganges, while the near approach of the Defence and Ramilies silenced the fire of the Indefatigable, Holstein, and the ships next to them in the Danish line. But the great Trekroner still continued its fire. This formidable work, having had nothing but frigates and sloops

Reign of George III. opposed to it, and that only for a time, was comparatively uninjured; and as it had but just been manned with nearly fifteen hundred men, it was considered as too strong to be successfully stormed. It was now judged advisable to withdraw the fleet out of the intricate channel while the wind was fair; and preparations were making for this purpose, when the Danish adjutant-general Lindholm came, bearing a flag of truce; upon which the *Trekroner* discontinued its fire, and the action, after having lasted five hours, during four of which it had been hotly contested, was brought to a close.

The message from the crown prince being to inquire the purport of Lord Nelson's note, the latter replied in writing, that humanity was the object; that he consented to stay hostilities in order that the wounded Danes might be taken on shore; that he would take his prisoners out of the vessels, and burn or carry off his prizes, as he should think fit; and that he would consider this as the greatest victory he had ever gained, if it should lead to a reconciliation between the two countries. Sir Frederick Thesiger was dispatched a second time with the reply; and the Danish adjutant-general was referred to the commander-in-chief for a final adjustment of terms. Lindholm, accordingly, proceeded to the London, about four miles off; and Nelson, availing himself of the opportunity thus afforded, made signal to the leading British ships, all of which were much crippled in their rigging and sails, to weigh in succession. The monarch led the way, and touched the edge of the shoal; but the Ganges taking her amidst-ships, drove her clear. The Glatton, drawing less water, passed first; but the *Defiance* and *Elephant* grounded about a mile from the *Trekroner*, and there remained fixed for many hours, in spite of the exertions of their crews. At the opposite end of the line, also, the *Desirée*, having gone to assist the *Bellona*, became fast on the same shoal. Soon after the *Elephant* grounded, Lord Nelson quitted her and followed Lindholm to the London. The boats of Sir Hyde Parker's division were actively employed during the whole night of the 2d in bringing out the prizes, and in getting afloat the ships which were aground; and, by the morning of the 3d, the latter, except the *Desirée*, were got off. The negotiations continued during the five following days; and, in the interval, all the prizes, except the *Holstein*, a sixty gun ship, which was sent home, were set fire to and destroyed. Six line-of-battle ships and eight pramae had been taken. Of the former, the *Zealand*, a much finer ship than the *Holstein*, was included amongst those consigned to the flames, for what reason we have not been able to ascertain. On the 9th an armistice for fourteen weeks was, after much discussion, agreed to; and Denmark engaged to suspend all proceedings under the treaty of armed neutrality which she had entered into with Sweden and Russia.

This was a murderous action. Our loss in killed and wounded fell little short of twelve hundred; whilst that of the Danes, including prisoners, amounted to about six thousand. Many of the British ships had suffered severely, from the steady hull-firing of the enemy; whilst, as to the Danish ships or floating hulks, the greater part of them were literally knocked to pieces; and had the pilots permitted the British ships to take a closer position, where the heavy cannonades of the Glatton and Ardent would have produced their full effect, the destruction would have been still more complete, and certainly more rapid. For the battle of Copenhagen Nelson received the title of Viscount; a paltry reward for services equally splendid in

Reign of George III. themselves, and important to the maritime interests of England.

On the 12th the British fleet sailed from Copenhagen roads by the difficult channel of the Grounds, between the islands of Amak and Saltholm, and steered for the northern extremity of the island of Bornholm, in order to intercept a Swedish squadron, reported at nine sail of the line. The Swedish admiral, however, whose force consisted of only six sail of the line, sought refuge behind the forts of Carlscrona; and here a negotiation was opened, which, on the 22d, ended in an agreement by his Swedish majesty to treat for the accommodation of all existing differences. On the 5th of May Sir Hyde Parker was recalled, and Nelson invested with the command, which ought never to have been for one moment intrusted to another. On the 8th he informed the Swedish admiral, by a flag of truce, that although Sir Hyde Parker had consented not to interrupt Swedish navigation, he, Lord Nelson, would act against the Swedish fleet if he found it at sea; and he left Captain Murray with six sail of the line, the Glatton, and a frigate, to cruise off Carlscrona. On the 14th his lordship anchored off Revel roads, prepared, if necessary, to let Russia feel "the Nelson touch," under which Denmark and Sweden had quailed; but events had already occurred in that country which changed the aspect of affairs, and brought on an accommodation without any further hostilities.¹

On the 23d of March the emperor Paul, who had performed so versatile and extraordinary a part on the political stage, from the period when he ascended the Russian throne, expired suddenly. His capricious tyranny, which was at last about to be directed against the members of his own family, proved fatal to him, and he fell the victim of one of those conspiracies to which despots are peculiarly exposed. His son and successor, Alexander, immediately disclaimed all hostility against Great Britain, and made reparation for the damage which our merchants had suffered from the embargo laid upon their ships. A convention was adjusted with Russia in the month of June, which put an end to the dispute with the northern states, as Sweden and Denmark could not of themselves hope to resist the power of Great Britain; and by the third article of the agreement it was stipulated, that effects embarked in neutral vessels should be free, with the exception of contraband stores of war, and the property of an enemy; that the latter designation should not include merchandise of the produce, growth, or manufacture of the countries at war, acquired by the subjects of the neutral state, and transported on their account; that the commodities prohibited should be such only as were declared contraband by the treaty of commerce concluded between Great Britain and Russia in 1797; that a port should be considered as under blockade when the ships of a belligerent power should be so stationed as to render it evidently dangerous to enter; that neutral vessels should not be stopped, except upon strong grounds; that the proceeding should be uniform, prompt, and legal; and that the right of searching mercantile ships sailing under convoy of a ship of war should only be exercised by the ships of the government, not by those of private adventurers. By this arrangement the chief points in dispute were settled in favour of this country.

The war between France and Great Britain was now reduced to merely maritime operations, and these were of no great magnitude. One of the most important occurred upon the coast of Spain, between Sir James Saumarez

¹ James's *Naval History of Great Britain*, vol. ii. p. 618, et seqq. London, 1822; Southey's *Life of Nelson*, vol. ii. p. 106, et seqq. London, 1813.

Reign of George III. and a squadron of French and Spanish ships of war. On the morning of the 6th of July, the British admiral stood through the Straits of Gibraltar, with the intention of attacking three French line-of-battle ships and a frigate, which were lying at anchor off Algeiras. On opening Cabrita Point he found that the ships lay at a considerable distance from the batteries on shore, and having the advantage of a leading wind, he conceived that he had every prospect of success. He had previously directed Captain Hood in the Venerable to lead the squadron; but the wind failing, this officer found it impossible to occupy the station assigned to him. Captain Stirling in the *Pompee*, however, having anchored opposite the inner ships of the enemy, commenced the action; while, in the ardour to engage, the *Hannibal* unfortunately ran aground. Every effort was now made by the admiral to cover this ship from the enemy's fire; but as she was only three cables length from one of the batteries on shore, he was obliged to retire, and to leave her in their hands. The loss on board the English squadron was considerable. The admiral had scarcely reached harbour when he was apprised that the French line-of-battle ships, disabled in the action of the 6th, were on the 8th reinforced by a squadron of five Spanish ships of the line under the command of Don Juan de Mozen, and a French ship of seventy-four guns; and that they were all under sail on the morning of the 12th of July, together with their prize the *Hannibal*. He had almost despaired of having a sufficient force in readiness to oppose such numbers; but by great exertion he was able to warp out of the Mole with all the ships under his command, the *Pompee* excepted, which had not time to get in her masts. The object of the British admiral being to intercept this powerful force on its way to Cadiz, he observed, late in the evening, that the enemy's ships had cleared Cabrita Point, and at eight he bore up after them. About eleven the *Superb* came up with the hostile squadron, and opened her fire at not more than three cables' length. At this critical period a mistake of the enemy decided the fate of the action. In the darkness and confusion, the Spanish ships fired upon each other; the *Real Carlos* took fire and blew up; whilst the *Hermenegildo*, mistaking her for an enemy, ran on board of her, and shared her melancholy fate; and the *San Antonio*, of seventy-four guns and seven hundred and thirty men, being thus left unsupported, struck to the *Superb*. The remaining ships of the enemy now crowded all sail and stood out of the straits; and at daybreak there appeared in sight only one French ship, which was standing towards the shoals of Cavil. But at this juncture the wind failing her, the Venerable was able to bring her to action, and had nearly silenced her when the loss of the mainmast obliged the captain of the Venerable to desist; and this ship, which was one of eighty-four guns, escaped along with the rest.

As the French had now resumed their usual menacing project of invasion, and appeared to be collecting a force in the harbour of Boulogne, an attempt was made by Lord Nelson to obstruct their preparations; and he succeeded in doing some damage, which appears to have encouraged him to make a more serious effort. Boats intended for boarding the French vessels were sent off in the night in four divisions, under the conduct of the Captains Somerville, Parker, Cotgrave, and Jones; and launches furnished with howitzers were detached under Captain Coon to join in the enterprise. Parker's division first approached the enemy, and commenced a furious attack, making strenuous efforts, with the most undaunted courage, and sanguine hopes of success. But an unforeseen obstacle baffled all their exertions. This was a very strong netting traced up to the lower yards of the French vessels, which were also

fastened by chains to the ground and to each other; and so effectual was the resistance of the enemy thus protected, that the crew of Captain Parker's boat were repulsed in their attempts to board a large brig, by a furious discharge of cannon and musketry, which killed a number of the assailants, while many more were wounded and maimed. The captain received a shot which carried off his leg and part of his thigh, and his boat would have been seized by the enemy, had not a cutter seasonably towed her off. In the mean time Somerville silenced the fire of a brig near the pier head; but so far from being able to bring her off, he found difficulty in securing the retreat of his own boats. Cotgrave, after a spirited attack, was deprived of the services of many of his men by a fire from the flotilla and the shore. And Jones felt so strongly the obstruction of the tide, that not being able to approach before the break of day, when the other captains were returning, he retired without making any hostile attempt. Captain Parker died of his wounds after the return of the fleet to the Downs. The number of British seamen killed and wounded on this occasion amounted to nearly two hundred.

Owing to the refusal of the former administration to ratify the capitulation of El Arish, negotiated between General Kleber and Sir Sidney Smith, the French still retained possession of Egypt. To remedy this unpardonable blunder a considerable force had been dispatched from Great Britain, under the conduct of an experienced and gallant officer, Sir Ralph Abercromby. The British forces under Lord Keith and General Abercromby, after unexpected delays on the coast of Asia Minor, arrived off Alexandria on the 1st of March; and the following day the fleet made sail for the bay of Aboukir, where it anchored. The sea continued to run high until the 8th, and no disembarkation could be effected; but on that day the first division made good their landing at ten o'clock in the morning, in the face of a body of French, who, evidently aware of their intention, were posted in force, with considerable advantage, on some sand hills opposite the landing place. The front of the disembarkation was narrow, and a hill which commanded the whole appeared almost inaccessible; yet the British troops ascended it under a fire of grape and musketry with the utmost intrepidity, and forced the French to retire, leaving behind them seven pieces of artillery, and a number of horses. The disembarkation was continued during that and the following day; while the troops which landed on the 8th advanced three miles the same day. On the 12th the whole army moved forward, and came in sight of the French, who were formed advantageously on a ridge, with their left resting on the canal of Alexandria and their right towards the sea. As it was determined to commence the attack on the 13th, the British force marched in two lines by the left, with an intention of turning the right flank of the enemy. But the attack was in some measure anticipated by the French, who descended from the heights on which they were formed, and assailed the leading brigades of both lines. The British troops were therefore compelled to change their front, which, though one of the most difficult operations in war, was executed with the greatest precision; and the rest of the army immediately followed their example. After a severe conflict, victory declared in favour of the English, though not without considerable loss.

The French commander-in-chief, Abdallah Menou, appears to have acted upon this occasion with but little judgment. Instead of bringing down nearly his whole force to the coast, which would have enabled him greatly to outnumber, and consequently, in all probability, to defeat the invaders, who were less acquainted with the country than his own officers, he thought fit to hazard an engagement on the 21st of March with only half his force. The battle commenced before day light in the morning, by a

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Reign of George III. false attack on the left of the English under Major-general Craddock, in which the French were repulsed. But the most vigorous efforts of the enemy were directed against the right of the English army, which they endeavoured by every possible means to turn. The attack on this point was begun with great impetuosity by the French infantry, sustained by a strong body of cavalry, who charged in column. The contest was unusually obstinate. The French were twice repulsed, and their cavalry were repeatedly intermixed with the English infantry. While this was passing on the right, the French attempted to penetrate the centre of the British army with a column of infantry, who were also repulsed and obliged to retreat. A corps of light troops, however, advanced, supported by infantry and cavalry, to keep in check the left of the English, which was the weakest of the line; but all their efforts were fruitless, and the British remained masters of the field. The loss on our side was great, amounting in killed, wounded, and missing, to upwards of fifteen hundred. The loss of the French was calculated in the English accounts at three thousand. One of the French generals, Roiz, was killed, and Generals Lanusse and Bodet died of their wounds. A French regiment which had been styled *Invincible* was destroyed in this battle, and its colours fell into the hands of a serjeant of the 42d regiment, called Sinclair, having, it is said, been picked up on the field by a Maltese named Anthony Lutz. The victory of the 21st decided the fate of Egypt. In this battle, however, the British army suffered a great calamity in the loss of its general. This officer was at once beloved and esteemed by the soldiers whom he commanded; he preserved the strictest military discipline, while at the same time he secured the attachment of his troops by his obvious anxiety for their welfare. Early in the revolutionary war he had been employed on the Continent. He commanded the advanced guard in the action on the heights of Cateau, and he conducted the march of the guards from Deventer to Oldensaal in the retreat of the British troops in 1794. In the following years, till 1797, he commanded in chief in most of the successful enterprises of the British in the West Indies; and on his return to Europe he was invested with the rank of lieutenant-general, and appointed to the command of the forces in Ireland. In this station he made great efforts at once to protect the people and restore discipline to the army, both of which the violence of faction had induced the rulers of that country to neglect. Though a man of simple manners, yet he possessed great independence of character, and did not hesitate to express, in public orders, the indignation which he felt on observing the disorder and consequent misery which had been introduced into Ireland, by encouraging the licentious insolence of the troops towards persons accounted disaffected to the government; freely informing the army in that country that they were become formidable to every one but the enemy. In the expedition to Holland he displayed military talents which excited the admiration not only of his own army, but of the generals who were opposed to him.

After the death of Sir Ralph Abercromby, the command devolved upon General Hutchinson, who lost no time in proceeding towards Alexandria, where the principal force of the enemy was now concentrated. In the mean time the town and castle of Rosetta were taken by a division of the British army under Colonel Spencer, aided by a body of Turks. The French garrison, amounting to eight hundred men, made but a feeble resistance, and retired to the right bank of the Nile, leaving a few men killed and prisoners. While such was the state of affairs in the neighbourhood of Alexandria, Admiral Blannet, with a considerable force from the East Indies, ef-

fecting a landing at Suez. The admiral had been separated from the rest of his squadron in the dangerous and difficult passage of the Red Sea; but before the end of April he was joined by a large reinforcement under the command of General Baird, who had with him Colonels Wellesley and Murray, and other officers of distinction.

As the capture of Grand Cairo, next to that of Alexandria, was a great object with the allies, a force was detached early in May for its reduction. On the 9th General Hutchinson, with four thousand British and an equal number of Turks, attacked the French near Rhamanieh; and the latter being driven in, retreated in the night towards Cairo, leaving a small garrison at Rhamanieh, which on the following day surrendered to the British. The loss of the English on this occasion did not exceed thirty men. About the same time a body of French and Copts, who had moved forward from Cairo to attack the Turks, were defeated by the grand vizier, who was essentially assisted by Colonel Murray and other British officers. The French are said to have lost fifty men, and the Turks about thirty in this action. The whole number of French engaged amounted to nearly five thousand, and the Turkish army to about nine thousand.

From various causes, it was the middle of June before the British army under General Hutchinson reached the vicinity of Cairo, where he found the works very much extended, though the garrison did not exceed five thousand in number. The capitan pasha at the same time invested Gizeh, a suburb of Cairo, on the left bank of the Nile, and the grand vizier took a position within cannon-shot of the city. Thus invested on every side, the garrison, on the 22d, sent a flag of truce to the English general, offering to treat for the evacuation of Cairo upon certain conditions. After a negotiation of several days, the surrender was finally agreed upon in a convention of twenty-one articles; the substance of which was, that the French army at Cairo and its dependencies were to be conveyed in the ships of the allied powers, and at their expense, together with their baggage, arms, ammunition, and other effects, to the nearest French ports in the Mediterranean; and of this convention General Menou was to be at liberty to avail himself. The port of Alexandria was all that now remained in possession of the French; it was attacked by sea and land, and at length surrendered by capitulation on the 2d of September.

By the time when intelligence of this event reached England, the views of men had been turned to a new state of things. Administration had seriously entered into negotiations for peace, which were conducted by Lord Hawkesbury on the part of Great Britain, and M. Otto, who resided in London as agent for the French prisoners of war, and who was now intrusted on the part of the French with this important business. The whole was managed with such secrecy, that not even persons who held official situations, except those immediately concerned, were acquainted with the state of the negotiation; and the lord mayor of London was the first person out of the cabinet to whom the result was communicated. Thus no unfair advantage could be taken; and this treaty stands almost singular on our records, since, at a period when the practice of gambling in the public funds was, from the wide extension of public credit, more predominant than at any previous crisis, not a single instance occurred of any sinister practice. By the preliminary articles, which were signed at London on the 1st of October, by M. Otto on the part of the French republic, and Lord Hawkesbury on the part of his Britannic majesty, Great Britain agreed to the restoration of all her conquests, the island of Trinidad and the Dutch possessions of Ceylon excepted. The Cape of Good Hope was to remain a free port to all

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the contracting parties, who were to enjoy the same advantages; the island of Malta was to be evacuated by the British troops, and restored to the order of St John of Jerusalem; Egypt was to be restored to the Ottoman Porte; the territory of Portugal was to be maintained in its integrity; the French troops were to evacuate the territories of Rome and of Naples; the republic of the Seven Islands was recognised by France; the fishery at Newfoundland was re-established on its former footing; and, finally, plenipotentiaries were to be named, and to repair to Amiens, in order to proceed with the arrangement of a definitive treaty of peace, in concert with the allies of the contracting parties. During the war, negotiations for peace had so repeatedly proved unsuccessful, that a general incredulity prevailed with regard to the possibility of such an event; and accordingly all merchants conducted their speculations upon the supposition that there existed no probability of an immediate termination to the war. The state of the present negotiation had been so carefully concealed, that, when the official intelligence of its issue was transmitted throughout the country, it excited everywhere the utmost astonishment, but nevertheless produced, almost instantaneously, the most unbounded expressions of joy among all orders of persons. The zealous adherents of the late administration, indeed, were upon the whole rather dissatisfied; but their voice was overwhelmed in the general exclamations which took place, and they ceased the expressions of joy which had occurred at the termination of any former war; and, as an abundant harvest was at the same time reaped, the prospect of plenty added greatly to the public joy.

CHAP. XVII.

REIGN OF GEORGE III.—FROM THE PEACE OF AMIENS TO THE RENEWAL OF THE WAR IN 1803.

Meeting of Parliament.—Speech from the Throne.—The Peace Impugned by Mr Windham.—Debates on this subject.—Definitive Treaty.—Suspicious conduct of Bonaparte.—Debates on the Definitive Treaty.—General Conduct of Administration.—Effects of the Change of Ministry.—Consequences of the Peace.—Conduct of the French Government.—French Expedition to St Domingo.—Abominable cruelty and oppression practised by the invading force.—Conduct of the French in Europe.—Despotism of Bonaparte.—The First Consul and the English Newspapers.—Meeting of Parliament.—Execution of Deyard and his Associates.—Difficulties experienced in executing the Treaty of Amiens.—Bonaparte's Conversation with Lord Whitworth.—Transference of Louisiana.—Extraordinary Scene between the First Consul and the British Ambassador.—Ultimatum of the British Court.—War renewed.—Declaration in justification of the renewal of the War.—Situation of the Ministry.—State of Parties.—Menace of Invasion.—Preparations for encountering the threatened attack.—Patriotism of all classes.—The army, the militia, the army of reserve, and the volunteers.

Parliament assembled on the 29th of October. By this time the new administration, from the mildness of their conduct, and their successful negotiations for peace, had obtained a powerful hold on the affections of the public. When they first came into office they appeared to have obtained a promise of support from their predecessors; but this kind of gratuitous support could scarcely be expected to be very consistent or uniform. Mr Pitt himself continued to give countenance to the minister; but some of his friends avowed their dissatisfaction on account of the treaty with France. The speech from the throne announced the conclusion of the negotiations commenced during the last session of parliament; and expressed much satisfaction that the differences with the

northern powers had been adjusted. It stated that the preliminaries of peace had been ratified between us and the French republic; that whilst this arrangement manifested the justice and moderation of our views, it would also be found conducive to the interests of the country and the honour of the British character; and that as the provision for defraying the expenses of maintaining an adequate peace establishment could not be made without large additional supplies, all possible attention would be paid to such economical arrangements as were consistent with the security of his majesty's dominions. The speech concluded with applauding the operations of the last campaign, and particularly the glorious issue of the expedition to Egypt, which, however, has deserved and obtained a more fitting commemoration.

In the House of Lords the motion for the usual address passed unanimously. In the House of Commons, both Mr Fox and Mr Pitt declared that they joined in the general joy which the peace had produced, and gave it their approbation. On the other hand, Mr Windham differed as to there being any just cause for general joy and exultation; and he disapproved of the preliminaries of peace signed with France, as well as of the address, in as far as it implied an approbation of them. It behoved him to give his reasons for dissenting on so material a point. To stand as a solitary mourner in the midst of public rejoicing, to wear a countenance clouded with sadness whilst all others were lighted up with pleasure, certainly appeared ungracious. But were the circumstances of this peace such as justified our exultation upon former occasions? To him they appeared in a quite contrary view; and when he was desired to illuminate, he first endeavoured to learn whether it was to light him to a feast or a sepulchre. It was his firm persuasion, that in signing this peace his friends had put their signatures to the death-warrant of the country. He knew the inconsistency of human affairs, nor was he profane enough to set bounds to the dispensations of providence; but neither could he foresee what changes might be wrought in the disposition of the people of England by intrigues from without or convulsions from within; and upon no rational view could he see his way out of the evils it would entail upon this country. The only thing necessary to enable France to divide with us the empire of the seas was a participation of our commerce, and this she would effectually secure by the present peace; whilst, by the surrender of our conquests, we had thrown out of our hands the only means to prevent it, the extension of our colonial system. The motives which induced ministers to conclude these preliminaries, he knew not; some of them he had heard, but was not convinced, as they appeared wholly insufficient. If they were forced to accept this peace through inability, their conduct was the more excusable; and we had to thank them, not for what they had acquired, but saved to their country. If they could prove that, by ceding foreign colonies, they had preserved objects nearer and dearer to us, as Portsmouth, Plymouth, and Ireland, and the soil of England, from ravage and desolation, they were entitled to gratitude instead of censure, and had established, not a ground of apology, but a claim to thanks. But such a plea he did not recognise; and how far they were actuated by necessity, would be a matter for future discussion.

Mr Addington described the observations of Mr Windham as premature, since the articles of the treaty were not before the house; and, without referring to the terms of the peace, he affirmed, that all we had given up would have afforded us no sort of security against the dangers apprehended by Mr Windham, and that the best counterpoise to the power of France consisted in the preservation

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Reign of George III. of our constitution, in our industry and skill, and in the right direction of our resources. Mr Sheridan, notwithstanding the unanimity with which the address was consented to, believed, that if men sincerely delivered their opinions, there never was a period of less real unanimity. The peace had been spoken of as glorious and honourable. It was a peace of which every Englishman might be glad, but no one proud; and it involved a degradation of national dignity such as the war might lead us to expect, though perhaps it was as good as any minister could make in the circumstances in which we were placed.

His majesty having by message communicated the preliminary treaty with the French republic, an address of thanks was moved on the 3d of November, when Earl Spencer expressed his regret at differing in sentiment from the ministers, with some of whom it was his pride to have coincided in principles, and co-operated in conduct. The great object of Britain, in former wars with France, had been the preservation of the balance of power. This was the point which had been considered, from king William's confederacy against Louis XIV. to the present time; and to insure the maintenance of such an equilibrium, it was not only necessary that Britain should not be left by the peace in a worse political situation than in the beginning of the war, but that her strength, possessions, or acquisitions, should continue in proportion as high as those of France. In the present war, the acquisitions of France had been infinitely beyond all former conception; she had, by her arts or her arms, subdued the Netherlands, Holland, the left bank of the Rhine, and a great part of Italy; her power, compared with that of Great Britain, exceeded what she had been allowed to retain at any former treaty of pacification; nor could we be secure, when such immense acquisitions had been left to France, without any thing like an equivalent left to this country. He therefore condemned the conditions of the peace now concluded, as of very great inequality, whether with reference to the relative state of France and the Continent, or to that of France and England. Lord Pelham thought that the terms of peace were the best which could be procured, even in favour of our allies. Portugal was safe, the Roman and Neapolitan territories had been released from the French yoke; the French were expelled from Egypt, by which our Ottoman ally had been saved; and with regard to Malta, its retention would have been more injurious than beneficial to England, as a powerful garrison would have been requisite for its protection. In the East and West Indies we had been triumphant by sea and land; and our possessions had received important additions by the conquests we had made. As to the security of the peace, we had every security which could be expected; and besides, it was the policy and interest of France to preserve it. Lord Grenville thought that, as Britain was in a prosperous state, we ought to have obtained more honourable terms of peace, because we were in a condition to demand them. It was far from his intention to undervalue the acquisitions of France; on the contrary, he thought them much more important than was generally esteemed. She had made the Rhine the boundary of the empire, and extended her territories beyond the ambition of her monarchs, having her frontiers protected by dependent republics and tributary kings. On our side we had triumphs no less brilliant and striking. We had multiplied our colonies, and our navy sailed the seas invincible; we had rescued Egypt, captured Malta, possessed ourselves of Minorca, and shut up the Mediterranean from the ships of France and Spain; the Cape of Good Hope, the key of the East, was ours; in the East Indies we had every thing except Batavia, which we might also have possessed had we thought it worth the cost of an expedition; in the

West Indies we had Martinico, Trinidad, and other islands; upon the continent of South America we had an absolute empire, in extent almost equal to that power to which we restored it. Such were the colonial possessions acquired by the war; and if Europe could not have been restored to her pristine state, these ought to have been retained as a counterpoise to the power of France. He denied the fairness of comparing the present treaty with that proposed at Lisle. We now gave up Surinam, Malta, and Minorca. At no time during the contest was the spirit of the country so depressed as at the negotiation of Lisle. A variety of causes combined to produce that despondency; the stoppage of the bank, the defection of our allies, and, above all, the mutiny in the fleet. The measure, therefore, was defensible on the score of necessity; but this was not the case at present; yet we had given to the French the only thing they wanted, the means of creating a navy, and of rivalling us in our commerce, while we had obtained nothing in return. The Earl of Moira was of opinion, that though the terms of the treaty were inadequate, they were unavoidable. Lord Nelson observed respecting Malta, that when he was sent down the Mediterranean, this island was in the hands of the French; and on his return from Aboukir, it was his first object to blockade it, because he deemed it an invaluable service to rescue it out of their possession. In any other view it was of no consequence, being at too great a distance from Toulon to watch the French fleet from that port; and in time of peace it would have required a garrison of seven thousand men, and in war as many more, without being of any real utility to us. The address was carried by a great majority.

When the same subject was discussed in the House of Commons, Lord Hawkesbury ascribed the origin of the war to the interference of France in the affairs of other nations; but the state of that country was now considerably amended, and it was impossible to look at the present condition of France without being convinced that we had at least effected this change. He then expatiated on the advantages we had gained, and the good faith we had maintained with our allies, releasing them from express stipulations when they were exposed to danger by continuing faithful to their engagements. With respect to Minorca, he did not consider that island as an acquisition worth retaining. Of Malta he spoke with less confidence, as, from its impregnable state, it was certainly of political consequence in the Mediterranean; but it was no source of trade and opulence; and, connected with the prosperity of the Levant, its consequence was considerably diminished. In a word, considering the results of the war, if the term glory were not taken into account, we had at least made an honourable peace; we had been engaged in a tremendous contest, and had come out of it, considering the circumstances, with advantage. Earl Temple considered those who had signed the peace as having signed the ruin of their country. Amongst the ill consequences likely to result from it, he lamented the encouragement given to republican principles; and as to the various ostensible objects of the war, not one of them had been accomplished. Mr Pitt said that it was undoubtedly the duty of government, in negotiations, to obtain the best possible terms; but it was difficult to know how far insisting on some lesser points might endanger the whole treaty; and he declared that he would rather close with an enemy on any terms not inconsistent with the honour of his country, than continue a war for any particular possession. He did not pretend to state that this peace fully answered all his wishes; but the government had obtained the best conditions they could, and the terms for which we con-

Reign of George III. tended would not have justified ministers in protracting the war. Mr Fox declared himself satisfied with the terms of the treaty, and asserted, that no perseverance in the war would have enabled us to make peace upon better conditions. There were persons who lamented the peace as glorious for France; but if it were so, and not inglorious to England, it gave him no concern. The opinions of men depended in a great degree upon their conceptions of the causes of the war; if one of its objects was the restoration of the accursed despotism of France, to him it was another recommendation of the peace, that it had been obtained without the accomplishment of such an object. In the terms and tone of the present treaty he perfectly coincided. He approved the terms, and thought the noble secretary had wisely tempered firmness of conduct with moderation of tone; but further than this he could not go. He would by no means agree respecting the time in which the treaty was made: it came many years too late. He would put it to the house, whether, at the time the opposition was most railed against for advising pacific measures, we could not have made peace on terms equally advantageous with the present. Would not France, on the breaking out of the war, have acceded to any? Would she not then have relinquished Holland, and perhaps abandoned her designs on the Netherlands? But, since that eventful period, could we not have negotiated better after the surrender of Valenciennes; and again, at Lisle, when we only failed from the extravagant pretensions of administration? In January 1800, the first consul made a direct overture, and we returned an answer, that the most effectual mode of facilitating peace would be to restore the Bourbons. Did we hint then at the possession of Ceylon or Trinidad? Would not Bonaparte have added these? Yes, and the Cape into the bargain. We then might have had Egypt by the convention of El Arish. The gallant Abercromby, indeed, would not have fallen covered with laurels in the lap of victory, nor would our brave army have acquired immortal honour; but we should have gained Egypt without the loss of blood or treasure. The first consul might not perhaps have relinquished the Netherlands, nor the left bank of the Rhine; but in Italy he had only the Genoese territory, and we had nothing then to resist to the south-eastward of the Alps, and our allies were victorious on the frontiers of France. At that time the instability of the government operated with us; but neither its stability nor its instability were of any real consequence. None of the convulsions and changes of the French revolution produced any material difference in her relation with foreign powers. She had at the beginning made peace with Prussia, and sedulously preserved it during the stormy times succeeding its ratification. We were told by the ministers to pause, and we did pause from January 1800 to October 1801, and added seventy-three millions to our national debt since we returned that impertinent answer to the overtures of Bonaparte; and this pause cost five times as much as all the Duke of Marlborough's campaigns.

To negotiate the definitive treaty of peace, the Marquis Cornwallis went to Paris towards the close of the year, and thence proceeded to Amiens, where the negotiations went on very slowly, and were not concluded till the 27th of March 1802. The chief difficulty occurred with regard to Malta. But it was at last agreed that it should be restored to the knights of the order of St John of Jerusalem, under the protection and sovereignty of the king of Naples; that it should be under the guarantee of France, England, Russia, Spain, Austria, and Prussia; and that if the order should not have sufficient troops to defend the island, the guaranteeing powers should each contribute an equal portion of troops, the officers to be appointed by the grand

master. It was settled that Malta should be a neutral port, that one half of the garrison should be Maltese, and that there should be no French nor English body of knights, or tongue as it is called. The king of Naples, however, was to be invited to garrison the island with two thousand men for one year from the restitution of the knights; which was to take place in three months after the exchange of the ratifications of the treaty. In other respects the definitive treaty differed little from the preliminaries formerly agreed to.

During the dependence of the negotiation, the first consul, Bonaparte, had taken some steps which indicated little moderation, and showed that it would be difficult to remain upon terms of amity with him, while the desire of extensive dominion which at present governed his councils seemed of too restless a character to allow much hope of tranquillity to the world. Without waiting till a definitive treaty of peace had been concluded, he sent a large army to St Domingo, which obliged Britain to dispatch a powerful fleet to the West Indies in order to watch its motions. On the Continent his measures were not less arbitrary. A considerable portion of Lombardy, with Milan as its capital, which had been erected into what was called the Italian or Cisalpine republic, and contained some millions of people, was now united to France, by the form of nominating Bonaparte to the office of president over it; a measure which at any other period would have involved all Europe in war; but at present no state ventured to interpose, and the British ministers finding no power in Europe disposed to resist this step towards the permanent aggrandisement of France, and being themselves anxious to restore peace, did not interrupt the negotiations on this account.

On Thursday the 29th of April Lord Pelham, by his majesty's command, laid before the House of Lords a copy of the definitive treaty of peace between his Britannic majesty and the French republic, and his Catholic majesty and the Batavian republic, signed at Amiens on the 27th of March. Several debates occurred in that house upon the subject; and at length, on the 10th of May, Lord Grenville moved the order of the day for the house to take into consideration the definitive treaty. He remarked, that it might be asked of what use was discussion, now that peace was concluded? Was it to abrogate, could it correct the treaty? To this question he answered, that this unfortunate treaty had been ratified by his majesty, and was therefore irrevocable; to its terms, however injurious, we were bound to accede. By evasion we should but add disgrace to disaster, and with the loss of national honour fill up the measure of national calamity. He wished not to impede the execution of the treaty, but to demonstrate to that house its dangerous tendency; to ascertain the situation in which it left the country; to point out the perils which impended, and the safety which yet remained. His objections to the preliminary treaty he had already stated; but to the definitive treaty there were objectionable yet more formidable. The two bases of negotiation, the *status ante bellum*, which signified the actual situation of the parties previous to hostilities, and the *uti possidetis*, which referred to their position during the pacification, had both been applied in the most prejudicial manner to this country. With regard to herself, England had adopted the *status ante bellum*; with regard to her rival, the *uti possidetis*. England had ceded her own conquests, and confirmed to France her new acquisitions. France possessed dominion on the Continent; we had, to oppose that dominion, the colonies of France and Spain. It would have been just that France should purchase our colonial by her continental sacrifices. He contrasted the definitive treaty with that of 1763. It had been an inviolable principle with Lord Chatham to make the prelimi-

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Reign of George III. nary as such as possible the definitive treaty. Our negotiators had treated with France during a naval armistice. Immediately subsequent to the preliminary treaty, France had sent an armament to the West Indies, and obliged England to destine for the West Indies also a naval force more than double any squadrons which had been sent during the war. The necessity of keeping in the West Indies thirty-five sail of the line was the first fruit of the peace. It was obvious that the definitive treaty contained concessions more important than the preliminary articles; and it was palpably the object of the French government to exclude the commerce of this country from the continent of Europe. With respect to the situation in which Portugal and the Prince of Orange were left by the treaty, it had been said that it was a pity, and that the articles were read with regret. The proposed indemnity to the Prince of Orange was evidently at the option of France; for the Cape of Good Hope, no effort had been made to insure its independence; and Malta, whose independence had been expressly stipulated, with the provision that it should be guaranteed by one of the powers of Europe competent to its protection, was finally placed under the guarantee of six powers, who never could be brought to agree on the subject of it. Its restoration to the order was nominal and futile. The order of Malta was virtually extinct; it would be subject to the nomination, the influence, and the domination of France. He then proceeded to take a retrospective view of the situation of this country at the commencement of the negotiation. With a colonial territory of an immense extent, we had, in the very conquests achieved by our arms, the means of perpetuating our victories. From the West Indies, the produce of which amounted to two millions annually, a considerable revenue had arisen, which was now lost. By our naval superiority, we had controlled the movements of the French fleet; they were now at liberty to steer for the West Indies, and we were under the necessity of sending fleets to watch them. We were in possession of resources adequate to the prosecution of the war, and held in our hands the means of extorting a just and reasonable peace. Instead of improving these advantages, we had resigned to France the preponderance of power on the Continent, established her sway in Italy, and annexed to her important possessions in India. Even our right of sovereignty in India was no longer recognised. It had been suggested that this right was guaranteed by the silence of the definitive treaty; a mode of argument which appeared equally strange and singular. He affirmed that the sovereignty of the Cape was necessary to the safety of our territories in India, and instanced the war with Tippoo Sultan, when a corvette had been sent to the Cape, from which fresh troops were immediately dispatched, who landed, marched, and co-operated at the siege of Seringapatam. By ceding the Cape to Holland, we had ceded it to France. In the West Indies we had restored to France Martinique and Tobago, and facilitated the recovery of St Domingo. France was also mistress of Louisiana, and in reality of Florida, which could not, from its vicinity to Louisiana, remain subject to Spain; and she possessed the key of Mexico, which she might enter at any period. If we turned to the Mediterranean, it would be impossible to send a single ship there without the permission of France. We were stripped of Majorca, Minorca, and even of the island of Elba; we were excluded from Leghorn, and deprived of the means of maintaining a fleet in that sea; the king of Sardinia could no longer open to us his ports. The victory obtained by Lord Nelson at Aboukir was to be attributed to the assistance rendered by the king of Naples; and in return for these services, the British government had stipulated that the French republic should evacuate his dominions,

without stipulating that they should not return to them. In short, whatever the valour of the British navy had won, the incapacity of the British ministry had lost.

The Duke of Norfolk expressed his hope, that, now the sword was restored to its scabbard, it would not again be unsheathed for the acquisition of a station in the Mediterranean. Lord Auckland, in reply to Lord Grenville, stated, that it was an error to hold that all treaties between nations were annulled by war, and that, to be reinforced, they must be specially renewed on the return of peace. It was true, that treaties, in the nature of compacts and concessions, the enjoyment of which has been interrupted by the war, were thereby rendered null; but compacts which were not impeded by the course and effect of hostilities, such as the rights of a fishery on the coasts of either of the belligerent powers, the stipulated right of cutting logwood in a particular district, were not affected by war. There were also circumstances which might authorize the dissolution of treaties, without any rupture between the two parties. It had therefore been observed by Vattel and other writers, that treaties cease whenever an essential alteration in either of the contracting parties takes place. Applying this doctrine to Savoy, Switzerland, and other countries, the temporary victims of the French revolution, he admitted that the definitive treaty contained not a single provision, direct or indirect, for the renewal of treaties which had subsisted previous to the war; but it was not true that, by the non-renewal of our treaties with Holland, the vessels of that republic would be exonerated from the ancient practice of striking their flag to British ships of war in the British seas; for that practice had existed independently of the treaty of 1782, or even of the treaty of Breda in 1767, which were only recognitions of a previously admitted claim. The same remark was applicable to the sixth article of the treaty of 1764, by which the states-general promised not to obstruct the navigation of British subjects in the Eastern seas. That article was no new grant, but an acknowledgment of a right, and a notification to merchants that they would not be disturbed in the exercise of that right. With respect to France, the commercial treaty of 1786 had expired, but not till it had reached the natural era of decay; nor would he feel solicitude for its resuscitation, unless our negotiator at Amiens should prove that the French manufacturers were able, in 1802, to resume the competition to which they were unequal, in 1786, under the existing tariff. With regard to our sovereignty in India, it had been confirmed and extended by various treaties, recognised by all the powers of Europe and India who had accepted privileges from us, and finally established by undisturbed possession. On the contrary, Lord Carnarvon represented the treaty as pregnant with danger to the country. It had been hoped, that some articles relative to our allies, and involving our own national honour, would be altered; but the definitive treaty, instead of realizing, had annihilated these hopes; concession was heaped on concession, and disgrace on disgrace. By omitting to renew former treaties, ministers had unadjusted all former adjusted disputes, and, without the customary acknowledgment of our rights, had left us to the honour and justice of France. Lord Ellenborough expressed much surprise that the non-renewal of treaties should have been urged as a serious objection to the definitive treaty. To what purpose was this solemn nonsense to be revived? Were not these treaties replete with articles wholly inapplicable to the present political state of Europe? For himself, he could as well think of the revival of the condition of mankind, in some remote period, as of the ancient treaties, which had become inapplicable and obsolete. Our sovereignty in India rested on the rights of conquest in legitimate war, upon the repeated recognition

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The same subject, after being repeatedly alluded to, was finally discussed in the House of Commons on the 13th of May. Mr Windham attacked the treaty in several of its prominent parts. With regard to Malta, he contended, that it must ultimately fall into the hands of the French. The little order of Malta, which contained in itself the great characteristic and distinctive qualities which the French revolution had subverted, was now destroyed. The German knights had already refused to serve in a body so degraded and debased; the Neapolitan soldiers would form no security for the independence of the island; the state of Malta was a virtual surrender, and our position in the Mediterranean untenable. The Cape of Good Hope was ceded, in full sovereignty, to the Dutch, who were thus at liberty to resign it to France. Our Indian empire was our sheet anchor; and whatever was necessary for its preservation was of the last importance. The disadvantages upon our side he then contrasted with the advantages in favour of France. By the restitution of Cochín China to the Dutch, they had acquired the means of annoying our possessions in the East Indies. In defining the boundaries of France and Portuguese Guiana, ministers had enabled France to obtain her great object, the navigation of the river Amazons; and the Portuguese settlements were left exposed to the foe. He deplored the cession of Louisiana to France, which, considering the almost indefinite extent of Guiana, was a surrender of the two greatest rivers in the world; the Mississippi in the north, the river of Amazons in the south of America. In aggravation of this thoughtless prodigality, ministers had abandoned the whole continent of Europe to France. We already knew the French too well to doubt that they would scruple what means they used to accomplish their ends. Had they not fraudulently obtained the restitution of Porto Ferrajo to the king of Etruria, in order to secure it to themselves? Regardless of stipulations and treaties, they had seized on the island of Elba; and, to bestow a compensation on the king of Etruria, had extorted Piombino from Naples. The French were a new race of Romans; and in ten years they had even acquired more than the Romans were able to achieve in fifty-three. On the map of Europe two nations only stood erect; and of these, the one from distance more than from strength. Austria was indeed still rich in resources, but destitute of foreign aid. There was no single power which could enter the lists with France. In the first conflict it would be crushed by her tremendous mace. He repeated, that we had given away two continents, and that the object of France obviously was the attainment of universal empire. He admitted that the peace must be observed, now that it had been entered into; but concluded with a motion for an address, expressive of disapprobation of it.

Lord Hawkesbury observed, that from some observations of Mr Windham's, it would seem that whenever any continental power, however unconnected with us, became involved with France, it was our duty to volunteer our interference and assistance. That we were deeply interested in the destiny of the Continent, he was willing to admit; but he conceived our interference with its commotions to be optional, neither instigated by necessity nor extorted by honour. At the end of nine years of war, we had found ourselves deserted by our allies; and with the first intimation which his majesty's ministers received of the new constitution of the Italian republic, they had heard of its acceptance by the courts of Vienna, Berlin, and Petersburg. Under these circumstances, he submitted, whether it was incumbent on us to continue the war on account of the Italian republic. The cession of Louisiana by Spain to France

was another ground of complaint. That province had originally been a French colony, when the Mississippi was the boundary between it and Great Britain; and it had been ceded by France to Spain, in a private convention, between the preliminaries and the definitive treaty of 1763; a proof that conventions of this nature, if not right, were at least not new. The value of Louisiana was at present only nominal; as a naval station it was allowed to be insignificant; and its vicinity to America was calculated to diminish, rather than augment, the attachment of that country to France. Concerning the non-renewal of certain treaties and conventions, he observed, that the principle on which treaties had usually been renewed appeared not to be understood. The treaty of Westphalia formed a distinct era in the history of Europe; and in order to ascertain the relative situations of the different powers, it had been customary to renew that treaty, together with any particular conventions subsequent to it. But it was to be considered, that formerly all preceding treaties had been renewed by the other powers of Europe, whereas in the present war no European power had done so; and consequently, if we had renewed former treaties, we only should be bound whilst other nations were free. By renewing former treaties, we should have been forced to sanction all the recent encroachments of France; and by sanctioning the treaty of Lunéville we should have been accessory to the dismemberment of the Germanic empire. His lordship represented the definitive treaty as coinciding with the preliminary treaty which had previously received the sanction of the house. In regard to the permanence of the peace, he was willing to admit, and to deplore, that, in the present state of the world, any peace must be insecure; but the precarious tenure on which this blessing was to be held formed no reason for rejecting it. He concluded with moving an address to his majesty, to testify the satisfaction of the house on the conclusion of the definitive treaty. Mr Dundas also opposed Mr Windham. In his judgment, however, the Cape and Ceylon formed our two great bulwarks, and he never would have consented to the surrender of the former. The cession of Malta was also to him a subject of equal regret; and to the relinquishment of either of those places he should have refused his assent had he continued in administration. But he would not support the address moved by Mr Windham, because it contained an invective against the peace. Sir William Young contended, that when a standing army was deemed essential to the preservation of peace, it was proper that the people should be informed of the state of affairs which justified such a measure. Lord Castlereagh remarked, that our grand object, from the commencement to the close of the war, had been the establishment of general security; and that the gradual extinction of Jacobin principles, and the gradual restoration of order and tranquillity, had been given as surerties for the peace. With regard to the territorial acquisitions of France, they might eventually become of infinite importance; but they were not pregnant with immediate mischief; and could only be the sources of distant danger. Mr Addington desired not that the treaty should be praised; he had never regarded it with sentiments of exultation, nor lavished on it panegyric; he was content that the honour of the country was unsullied by the measure which had been adopted. He acknowledged that the territorial acquisitions of France could not be viewed without regret; but there were events which we could not control, and dispensations in which we must acquiesce; and he should rejoice to see the resources of this country economized by peace. Mr Sheridan treated the subject with some gaiety. He said he supported the peace, because he was convinced that ministers could obtain no better; their predecessors

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Reign of George III. had left them to choose between an expensive, bloody, fruitless war, and a hollow, perilous peace. He attacked the new oppositionists, who had been supporters of the former administration, and demanded, for what did we go to war? Why, to prevent French aggrandisement: Have we done that? No. Then we are to rescue Holland: Is that accomplished? No. Brabant is the *sine qua non*: Is it gained? No. Then come security and indemnity: Are they obtained? No. The late minister told us, that the example of a Jacobin government in Europe, founded on the ruins of a holy altar, and the tomb of a martyred monarch, was a spectacle so dreadful and infectious to Christendom, that we could never be safe while it existed, and could do nothing short of our last effort for its destruction. For these fine words, which had at last given way to security and indemnity, we had laid out near two hundred thousand lives, and nearly three hundred millions of money—and had gained Ceylon and Trinidad. But one grand consolation remained. Bonaparte was to be the extirpator of Jacobinism; the champion of Jacobinism was to become a paricide: the child of sin was to destroy his mother; he had begged pardon of God and man, piously restored bishops with the salaries of curates, and penitently extorted from a solemn oath to turn spies and informers in his favour. It had been said, that France must have colonies to be afraid of war; that that is the way to make Bonaparte love peace. He has had, to be sure, a rough military education; but if you put him behind the counter a little, he will mend exceedingly. When he was reading the treaty he thought all the names of foreign places, Pondicherry, Chandernagore, Cochín, Martinico, all ceases. No such thing; they are so many traps or holes to catch this silly fellow in, and make a merchant of him. At this moment, nobody in Britain knew who was minister, as the present ministers continued to identify themselves with the former. Of the late minister, he said that none more admired his splendid talents than he did. If ever man was formed to give lustre to his country, he was that man. He had no low, little, mean, petty vices; he had too much good sense, taste, and talents, to set his mind upon ribbands, stars, and titles; he was not of a nature to be the tool and creature of any court. But great as were his talents, he had misapplied them in the politics of this country: he had augmented our national debt, and diminished our population. He had done more to abridge our privileges, and to strengthen the crown at the expense of the constitution, than any minister he could mention. He concluded by moving, as an amendment to Lord Hawkesbury's address, that it was the opinion of that house, that the omission of various opportunities of negotiating peace with advantage to this country, more especially the rejection of the overtures made by the first consul of France in January 1800, appeared to have led to that state of affairs which rendered peace so necessary as to justify the painful sacrifices which our majesty had been advised to make for the attainment thereof. But the address proposed by Lord Hawkesbury was carried by a very great majority.

During this session of parliament the most important operation of finance consisted of the repeal of the tax upon income, which gave great satisfaction. Indeed, in their whole conduct administration conducted themselves with a degree of moderation and prudence which greatly conciliated towards them the minds of the public. On all occasions they defended the former ministry against the attacks of the old opposition; and, in return, they were supported by a very considerable number of the members of that administration, including Mr Pitt. At the same time they did not appear unwilling to enter into political connections with the members of the old opposition. Par-

liament was prorogued on the 28th of June, and dissolved on the following day. The elections which immediately succeeded exhibited the singular spectacle of an administration which avoided interfering in the choice of the members of parliament. The members and friends, however, of the old administration, together with their opponents, were abundantly active.

The effect of the change of ministry had by this time been very sensibly felt over the whole of the island. During the preceding ten years the minds of men had, in a greater or less degree, been kept in a state of constant alarm from the fear of plots and conspiracies against the government, and from the apprehension that a most dangerous disaffected party was at all times ready to burst forth into action, and that the British constitution was only preserved in consequence of the suspension of the *habeas corpus* act and other legislative restraints, aided by the extreme vigilance of administration, and of their friends, in repressing disaffected persons. Hence society existed under a sort of general apprehension and distrust; and persons originally unfriendly to the war suffered in all departments of business, and in every quarter of the country, no inconsiderable degree of political persecution. All this had now passed away. The new ministers suffered the penal and restraining laws quietly to expire, and the constitution to depend for support upon its own strength and the ancient provisions of the law; they gave themselves no trouble about the general sentiments of the people with regard to speculative subjects, and seemed desirous to conciliate the good will of all orders of the state. The consequence was, that the fears and anxieties which formerly existed about the safety of the constitution passed away like a dream; a universal attachment to the institutions of the country sprung up; and political animosities, being no longer fed by alarms artfully excited by the government, were, as if by a sort of enchantment, appeased and forgotten.

With regard to the effects of peace upon the British and French nations, these promised at first to prove favourable to the general interests of humanity. The French had successfully defended their own independence, and in their turn assailed those by whom it had been menaced, with such a persevering energy as secured to them a portion of respect from the British nation; whilst, on the other hand, the maritime triumphs of Britain had been so splendid, and the valour of her troops in Egypt so distinguished, as to secure to this country a high degree of consideration in the eyes of the French. The people of the two countries accordingly seemed eager to unite in habits of the most amicable intercourse; considerable numbers of Frenchmen came over to Britain; and multitudes of persons of all ranks hastened from Britain to visit a country which had of late years excited, in so remarkable a degree, the attention of all the nations of Europe, and had been the scene of such extraordinary transactions. On this reciprocal tendency of the two nations to abandon their animosities, a system of commercial intercourse might have been reared of a nature much more simple and perfect than that which had been created by Mr Pitt's treaty; and there is no reason to believe that any disposition existed, on the part of the British government, to stand aloof from France, or to avoid, for any political reason, the extension of our commerce with that country. Such an intercourse would have proved favourable to France in every possible way. It would have enabled her people to derive considerable assistance from the capital of British merchants, which would have been rapidly and liberally advanced towards promoting the culture of their most valuable productions; and even in a political point of view France must have been aggrandised by such a connection.

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But it soon appeared that a man may be qualified to lead armies successfully to battle, to overrun provinces, and to attain the envied title of a conqueror, who at the same time possesses but a moderate portion of magnanimity, self-command, or knowledge of the maxims of sound policy and the best interests of nations. The French government, instead of seizing the opportunity thus afforded of encouraging the people to become commercial and acquire wealth, and seeking to form a maritime power by opening their ports, and holding out to Britain a commercial treaty arranged on liberal principles, shut their harbours more closely than during the most violent period of the war. Vainly fancying that in this way they would enable their own manufacturers to rival those of Britain, they in fact only excluded their wines from the British market; and by thus losing a sure and ready mode of attracting riches to their country, they prevented the acquisition of capital by enterprising individuals, and ruined the very industry which they intended to encourage and promote. They idly thought that they were in this way limiting the trade of Britain, which, having all the rest of the world open to its efforts, could not be injured; and, in truth, by their narrow views and illiberal policy they only injured themselves. By similar miscalculation, or from a restless spirit of ambition, the French government sought aggrandisement by those efforts of violence which are only tolerable in the midst of war, but which in peace justly excite the jealousy and indignation of mankind.

One of the first enterprises of Bonaparte, in consequence of the peace, was an attempt to reduce under his power the island of St Domingo. During the revolution that great and fertile island had suffered the most severe calamities, which had terminated in the emancipation of the negroes; and the latter had formed themselves into a sort of regular government, at the head of which was one of their own race, Toussaint-Louverture, a man of humanity, and possessed of considerable talents. Reports were circulated in Europe that he wished to render St Domingo independent of France; but of this there is no proof, and it is probable that his chief offence consisted in the general estimation and personal consequence to which he had attained, and that the despotic spirit of Bonaparte could brook no appearance of independence or rivalry in any part of the French territory. Nor was it unnatural that, under a military government, force should have been employed in preference to any method of conciliation. At the end of the year 1801 an army of twenty-five thousand men was sent to St Domingo; and as single ships and small squadrons continued to sail during the winter, loaded with troops, it is believed that nearly forty thousand men were employed in what might be called the first division of the expedition. The accounts of their proceedings are very defective; but from all that has transpired, the conduct of the French appears to have been extremely disagreeable. The negro chiefs having refused unconditional submission, they were attacked, and defeated in several battles; and dissension, as usual, following disaster, Toussaint was at last induced to enter into negotiation. The terms of the treaty were concealed; but, as he was still at the head of a respectable force, it is believed that not only the possession of his personal freedom, but the undisturbed enjoyment of his property, was secured to him, and that his followers were promised a full indemnity. This occurred in the beginning of May 1801. The French general, Le Clerc, brother-in-law of the first consul, no sooner found the negro chief in his power, and the tran-

quillity of the colony apparently re-established, than he committed one of the basest acts of treachery that ever disgraced a government. The abdicated general was accused of a conspiracy, though it was evident that from the period of his submission to that of his seizure he had not had time to meditate, much less to organize, such a measure; and on the 13th of May Toussaint and his whole family were put on board a frigate, and shipped off for France, where he soon died of a broken heart in a prison. The negroes perceived that they were deceived and betrayed; and as an attempt was made to reduce them again into a state of slavery, after they had enjoyed freedom for several years, no doubt could remain as to the real object for which the expedition had been fitted out. The chiefs who had been prevailed on to desert Toussaint, and whose desertion had led to his surrender, now justly fearing that they were destined to share the miserable fate of their deluded associate, betook themselves to flight;—the whole island revolted;—pestilence came in aid of these avengers of tyranny and falsehood;—and the miserable instrument of the first consul's cruelty fell himself the victim of the climate. After a series of horrors and atrocities, even darker and deeper than those which blacken the memory of Robespierre, Marat, St Just, and Carrier, and which will for ever remain a disgrace to the French character, the republic had to regret the loss of sixty thousand of her best troops, in a vain attempt to subdue a colony which might, with temper and humanity, have been conciliated and retained.

In Europe the conduct of the French government was scarcely less arbitrary. The whole fortresses of Piedmont were dismantled, and that country was ultimately annexed to France; and the duchy of Parma and Placentia was treated in the same way. Meanwhile the Swiss, whose form of government had been altered in imitation of that of France, wished to restore the ancient constitutions of the cantons, under which their ancestors had prospered during so many ages. But their present leaders, who had risen to power under the protection of France, solicited the interference of Bonaparte in their favour; and he accordingly sent a numerous army against Switzerland, and, notwithstanding the remonstrances of the British court, placed the sovereignty in the hands of his own dependents or adherents. After all their struggles for freedom, the French nation also submitted to a confirmed military despotism. When Bonaparte assumed the appellation of first consul, it was under the declaration that the office, in terms of the constitution then promulgated, was to endure for only ten years. But this constitution was now altered, and the assent of the people being demanded to a new one, by which Bonaparte was to remain consul for life, and even to possess the power of nominating his successor, suffrages in favour of this measure were obtained to the number of between three and four millions. The event was celebrated with the greatest magnificence in Paris; and addresses of congratulation were presented from the different courts of the continent of Europe, and even from the emperor of Germany.

These transactions could scarcely fail to be noticed in Britain, and to become the subject of animadversion in the public newspapers. In fact the unprincipled ambition of Bonaparte, and the degraded character and state of the French nation, formed topics of frequent discussion in the public journals, and were criticised with unexampled severity. Even the personal character of the first consul was not spared; and it cannot be denied that he was often libelled in the grossest manner. Bonaparte appears to have early become sensitive and irritated on this head. The English, owing to their political freedom, had long boasted of their superiority as a people over their en-

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slaved neighbours of France; and the first consul, no doubt, dreaded less the vanity of his subjects should be wounded by continual representations, coming from the free press of England, of the degraded state into which it was alleged they had fallen. A great degree of irritation was thus produced in the French government against England; and the first consul even went so far as not only to prohibit the importation of English newspapers into France, but to demand from our government that the best bulwark of British freedom should be destroyed, by imposing restrictions upon the liberty of the press. He was even weak enough, through the medium of the French official journal, to commence a contest of argument, eloquence, and vituperation, against the writers of English newspapers. But in such a warfare he could not fail to be beaten; because they had nothing else to do but to write; and because the obscurity of their situation as individuals enabled them to inflict deep wounds without fear of reprisals. Newspaper writers also had much to gain by the contest, and certainly could wish for nothing more favourable to their interests, than to be enabled, during a dull, monotonous period of peace, to render their lucubrations interesting, and to amuse their readers by engaging in a paper war with Bonaparte. These circumstances, however, added to the restless ambition of this wonderful person, and his obvious want of discernment as to the true interests of France, or of patience to pursue them, left but little reason to hope that the peace so recently concluded would be of any long duration.

The new parliament assembled on the 16th of November, and Mr Abbot was chosen speaker of the House of Commons. On the 22d, his majesty, in a speech from the throne, after congratulating the country on the abundant harvest, remarked, that the state of the manufactures, commerce, and revenues of the united kingdom was flourishing beyond example; that the loyalty and attachment which were manifested to his person and government afforded the strongest indication of the just sense entertained of the numerous blessings enjoyed under the protection of our happy constitution; that, in his intercourse with foreign powers, he had been actuated by a sincere disposition for the maintenance of peace; that nevertheless he could not lose sight of that established and wise system of policy by which the interests of the other states were connected with our own, or be indifferent to any material change in their relative condition and strength; that his conduct would be invariably regulated by a due consideration of the actual situation of Europe, and a watchful solicitude for the permanent welfare of his people; and that he would not fail to adopt those means of security which were best calculated to preserve to his subjects the blessings of peace. In both houses the usual address was agreed to unanimously and without debate.

About this time Colonel Despard, and six persons of low rank, were executed for high treason. Despard was an Irishman, and of good family. Having long been under close confinement during the late administration, on suspicion of entertaining criminal designs against the government, his imagination, while under seclusion from society, had become inflamed nearly to madness; and after his liberation, in consequence of the *habeas corpus* act being no longer suspended, he had associated with a number of mean persons, whom he had induced to imagine that they were capable of overturning the government and altering the constitution. They accordingly took an oath to this effect, and agreed to attack the king at the meeting of parliament, to seize the Tower and the bank, and to incite a general insurrection. But their wild scheme was discovered, and their criminal engagements being fully proved, they were convicted and executed.

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In the meanwhile some difficulties occurred in the execution of the treaty of Amiens. The British ministry had avoided engaging in a quarrel with Bonaparte on account of his contumacious usurpation, because they found no power willing to join them in resisting him; but his restless ambition induced him to endeavour to lay hold of the island of Malta; and his impatient spirit prevented his conducting the plan in such a manner as might have enabled him to avoid suspicion and insure success. That island was destined by the treaty to be intrusted to the order of St John of Jerusalem. Without waiting till the British had abandoned it, Bonaparte instantly set on foot negotiations with the different countries to which the knights of the order belonged, to procure the abolition of the order, the confiscation of its revenues, and the prohibition of the future enrolment of knights, and their departure for Malta. And having accomplished these objects, he required the British government to deliver up the island to a grand master, appointed, at his instigation, by the pope; or to the king of Naples, who was to receive possession, in the first instance, for behoof of the knights. Strictly speaking, there was thus no longer any order of Malta to defend the island; and as the king of Naples was at all times at the mercy of France, the evacuation of Malta by the British troops would, in the actual posture of affairs, have been equivalent to the transferring it to the latter power. The British ministry had submitted to the late continental acquisitions of France from want of means to oppose them; but they resolved to oppose the seizure of this island, which may be considered as the key of the Mediterranean, because the superiority of the British fleet enabled them successfully to do so. This determination appears to have greatly perplexed the vehement and irritable mind of the first consul. No successful resistance had hitherto been offered to any of his continental enterprises; and as the attempt now made to refuse delivery of the island to the king of Naples, and the nominal grand master of the order of St John, could only be justified by accusing him of having acted fraudulently against the spirit of the treaty, so an acquiescence on his part in the retention of the island, contrary to the express stipulations of the treaty of Amiens, would have been equivalent to a confession of guilt. In this situation he found himself detected in a deceit which he was unwilling to acknowledge; whilst, at the same time, he suffered the additional mortification of having sacrificed his reputation without any profit in return, the irresistible power of the British navy rendering it impossible for him to seize Malta by force. In this dilemma, a conversation occurred between him and the British ambassador Lord Whitworth, which, as the fortunes of Bonaparte have been so extraordinary, it may be worth while to record, in the terms in which it was reported to the British court. In a letter to Lord Hawkesbury, dated the 21st February, Lord Whitworth says:—"I received a note from M. Talleyrand, minister for foreign affairs, informing me the first consul desired to converse with me, and that I would come to him at the Thuilleries at nine o'clock. He received me in his cabinet, with tolerable cordiality; and after talking on different subjects for a few minutes, he desired me to sit down, as he himself did on the other side of the table, and began. He told me that he felt it necessary, after what had passed between me and M. de Talleyrand, that he should in the most clear and authentic manner make known his sentiments to me, in order to their being communicated to his majesty; and he conceived this would be more effectually done by himself, than through any medium whatever. He said that it was a matter of infinite disappointment to him, that the treaty of Amiens, instead of being followed by conciliation and friendship, the natural effects

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of peace, had been productive only of continual and increasing jealousy and mistrust; and that this mistrust was now avowed in such a manner as must bring the point to an issue. He now enumerated the several provocations which he pretended to have received from England. He placed in the first line our not evacuating Malta and Alexandria, as we were bound to do by treaty. In this he said that no consideration on earth would make him acquiesce, and of the two, he had rather see us in possession of the Faubourg St Antoine, than Malta. He then adverted to the abuse thrown out against him in the English public prints; but this, he said, he did not so much regard, as that which appeared in French papers published in London. This he considered as much more mischievous, since it meant to excite this country against him and his government. He complained of the protection given to Georges, and others of his description, who, instead of being sent to Canada, as had been repeatedly promised, were permitted to remain in England, handsomely pensioned, and were constantly committing all sorts of crimes on the coasts of France, as well as in the interior. In confirmation of this, he told me that two men had within these few days been apprehended in Normandy, and were now on their way to Paris, who were hired assassins, and employed by the Bishop of Arras, by Georges, and by Duthiel, as would be fully proved in a court of justice, and made known to the world. He acknowledged that the irritation he felt against England increased daily, because every word (I make use as much as I can of his own ideas and expressions) which blew from England brought nothing but enmity and hatred against him. He now went back to Egypt, and told me, that if he had felt the smallest inclination to take possession of it by force, he might have done it a month ago, by sending twenty-five thousand men to Aboukir, who would have possessed themselves of the whole country, in defiance of the four thousand British in Alexandria. That instead of that garrison being a means of protecting Egypt, it was only furnishing him with a pretence for invading it. This he would not do, whatever might be his desire to have it as a colony; because he did not think it worth the risk of a war, in which he perhaps might be considered as the aggressor, and by which he should lose more than he could gain, since, sooner or later, Egypt would belong to France, either by the falling to pieces of the Turkish empire, or by some arrangement with the Porte. As a proof of his desire to maintain peace, he wished to know what he had to gain by going to war with England. A descent was the only means of offence he had, and that he was determined to attempt by putting himself at the head of the expedition. But how could it be supposed, that after having gained the height on which he stood, he would risk his life and reputation in such a hazardous attempt, unless forced to it by necessity, when the chances were that he and the greatest part of his expedition would go to the bottom of the sea. He talked much on this subject, but never affected to diminish the danger. He acknowledged that there were a hundred chances to one against him; but still he was determined to attempt it, if war should be the consequence of the present discussion; and such was the disposition of the troops, that army after army would be found for the enterprise. He then expatiated much on the natural force of the two countries. France with an army of four hundred and eighty thousand men (for to this amount it is, he said, to be immediately completed), all ready for the most desperate enterprises; and England with a fleet that made her mistress of the seas, and which he did not think he should be able to equal in less than ten years. Two such countries, by a proper understanding, might govern the world, but by their strifes might

overturn it. He said, that if he had not felt the enmity of the British government on every occasion since the treaty of Amiens, there would have been nothing that he would not have done to prove his desire to conciliate; participation in indemnities as well as in influence on the Continent, treaties of commerce, in short, any thing that could have given satisfaction, and have testified his friendship. Nothing had, however, been able to conquer the hatred of the British government, and, therefore, it was now come to the point, whether we should have peace or war. To preserve peace, the treaty of Amiens must be fulfilled; the abuse in the public prints, if not totally suppressed, at least kept within bounds, and confined to the English papers; and the protection so openly given to his bitterest enemies (alluding to Georges, and persons of that description) must be withdrawn. If war, it was necessary only to say so, and to refuse to fulfil the treaty."

The result of this conversation, and of some circumstances in the conduct of the French, was that on the 8th of March, the following message was addressed by the king to the House of Commons. "His majesty thinks it necessary to acquaint the House of Commons, that as very considerable military preparations are carrying on in the ports of France and Holland, he has judged it expedient to adopt additional measures of precaution for the security of his dominions. Though the preparations to which his majesty refers are avowedly directed to colonial service, yet as discussions of great importance are now subsisting between his majesty and the French government, the result of which must at present be uncertain, his majesty is induced to make this communication to his faithful Commons, in the full persuasion, that while they partake of his majesty's earnest and unvarying solicitude for the continuance of peace, he may rely with perfect confidence on their public spirit and liberality, to enable his majesty to adopt such measures as circumstances may appear to require, for supporting the honour of his crown, and the essential interests of his people." On the motion of Mr Addington, the house voted an address, agreeing unanimously to support the crown in the measures proposed. It speedily appeared that the preparations which had been alluded to in the king's message were extremely trifling indeed. Bonaparte had obliged the Spaniards to cede to him the sovereignty of Louisiana; and an armament, with about four thousand troops, was now preparing to leave the ports of Holland to take possession of the territory thus acquired. The government of the United States opposed this measure; and the state of Kentucky sent notice to the president that ten thousand volunteers had enrolled themselves, and were resolved, with or without the aid of the union, to resist the settlement of the French in their neighbourhood. Meanwhile Bonaparte, who probably had no serious intention of effecting such a settlement, sold for a sum of money to the United States of North America the territory of Louisiana; a country inhabited by many independent tribes of savages, and to which, upon the principles of natural justice, neither he, nor the Spaniards, nor the Americans, had any right. But the inhabitants of Europe, and even the Transatlantic race of Europeans, had now for some ages been accustomed to regard all foreign countries as unoccupied property, which they might seize and transfer to each other, without regard to the natural inhabitants, whom they considered as beings of a subordinate race and character. Accordingly this transference of Louisiana excited no surprise in Europe.

Meanwhile, as the king's message to the House of Commons, already mentioned, evinced a determination on the part of the British government to prefer a new war rather than suffer Bonaparte to carry further his ambitious pro-

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"He accosted me evidently under very considerable agitation. He began by asking me if I had any news from England? I told him I had received a letter from Lord Hawkesbury two days ago. He immediately said, 'And so you are determined to go to war.' 'No,' I replied; 'we are too sensible of the advantages of peace. We have had war for fifteen years already.' As he seemed to wait for an answer, I observed only, 'We have had too much of it.' 'But you wish to carry it on for fifteen years longer, and you force me to it.' I told him that it was very far from his majesty's intentions. He then proceeded to Count Maréchal and the Chevalier Azara, who were standing together at a little distance from me, and said to them, 'The English wish for war, but if they are the first to draw the sword, I shall be the last to sheath it. They have no regard to treaties, henceforth they should cover them with black crapes.' In a few minutes he came back to me, and resumed the conversation by something personally civil to me. He began again, 'Why these armaments? Against what are these measures of precaution? I have not a single ship of the line in the ports of France; but if you wish to arm, I will arm also. If you wish to fight, I will fight also. You may perhaps destroy, but you will never intimidate France.' 'We wish neither the one nor the other. It is our desire to live in good understanding with her.' 'You must regard treaties then. Confusion to those who have no regard to treaties: (*malheur à ceux qui ne respectent pas les traités*!') they will be responsible for it to all Europe.' He was too much agitated to make it advisable for me to prolong the conversation. I therefore made no answer; and he retired to his apartment repeating the last phrase. It is to be remarked, that all this passed loud enough to be heard by two hundred people who were present; and I am persuaded that there was not a single person who did not feel the impropriety of his conduct, and the total want of dignity as well as of decency on the occasion." The negotiations in the mean time proceeded; and Bonaparte still insisted upon the literal fulfilment of the treaty of Amiens. He appears to have flattered himself that the British ministry would not venture to renew the war on account of Malta. Their pacific dispositions were well known; they had suffered him to make great encroachments upon the Continent without engaging in hostilities; they were understood to consist of men who were not the leaders of any party, but had only held a subordinate rank as supporters of Mr Pitt's administration; and they had been loudly accused in Britain by the ex-ministers, and by many of the old opposition, of want of talents and want of spirit, on account of the apparent tameness with which they had recently acted. It seems likely, therefore, that Bonaparte presumed that they would ultimately give way to his demands. But the good temper and forbearance of administration had the effect of rousing the spirit of the British nation, and of inducing, in a large proportion of the people, a wish to engage in a war against a man whom they now detested as an odious usurper. Thus encouraged, administration rose in their demands; and on the 12th of May Lord Whit-

worth presented the ultimatum of the British government, which was in substance that the French government should engage to make no opposition to the cession of the island of Lampedosa to his majesty by the king of the Two Sicilies; that, in consequence of the present state of the island of Lampedosa, his majesty should remain in possession of the island of Malta until such arrangements should be made by him as might enable him to occupy Lampedosa as a naval station, after which period the island should be given up to the inhabitants, and acknowledged as an independent state; that the territories of the Batavian republic should be evacuated by the French forces within one month after the conclusion of a convention founded on the principles of this project; that the king of Etruria and the Italian and Ligurian republics should be acknowledged by his majesty; that Switzerland should be evacuated by the French forces; that a suitable territorial provision should be assigned to the king of Sardinia in Italy; and, in a secret article, that his majesty should not be required by the French government to evacuate the island of Malta until after the expiration of ten years. The proposed stipulations relative to the king of Etruria, the Italian and Ligurian republics, and the king of Sardinia, were merely inserted as make-weights; and accordingly, in an additional article, it was provided that they might be omitted, but that, if inserted at all, they must be inserted together.

This ultimatum having been rejected, war was announced on the 16th of May, by a message from the king to the two houses of parliament; and on the 21st of May a declaration, justifying this measure, appeared in the London Gazette. As the statements contained in this document exhibit a detail of the public acts alleged to have occasioned the renewal of the war, it may be proper to insert a few of its leading paragraphs.

"As soon as the treaty of Amiens was concluded, his majesty's courts were open to the people of France for every purpose of legal redress. All sequestrations were taken off their property; all prohibitions on their trade, which had been imposed during the war, were removed; and they were placed on the same footing, with regard to commerce and intercourse, as the inhabitants of any other state in amity with his majesty with which there existed no treaty of commerce.

"To a system of conduct thus open, liberal, and friendly, the proceedings of the French government afforded the most striking contrast. The prohibitions which had been placed on the commerce of his majesty's subjects during the war have been enforced with increased strictness and severity. Violence has been offered in several instances to their vessels and their property; and in no case has justice been afforded to those who may have been aggrieved in consequence of such acts; nor has any satisfactory answer been given to the repeated representations made by his majesty's ministers or ambassadors at Paris. Under such circumstances, when his majesty's subjects were not suffered to enjoy the common advantages of peace within the territories of the French republic and the countries dependent upon it, the French government had recourse to the extraordinary measure of sending over to this country a number of persons for the professed purpose of residing in the most considerable seaport towns of Great Britain and Ireland in the character of commercial agents or consuls. These persons could have no pretensions to be acknowledged in that character, as the right of being so acknowledged, as well as the privileges attached to such a situation, could only be derived from a commercial treaty, and as no treaty of that description was in existence between his majesty and the French republic.

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"If the French government had really appeared to be actuated by a due attention to such a system, if their dispositions had proved to be essentially pacific, allowance would have been made for the situation in which a new government must be placed, after so dreadful and extensive a convulsion as had been produced by the French revolution. But his majesty has unfortunately had too much reason to observe and to lament, that the system of violence, aggression, and aggrandisement, which characterised the proceedings of the different governments of France during the war, has been continued with as little disguise since its termination. They have continued to keep a French army in Holland, against the will and in defiance of the remonstrances of the Batavian government, and in repugnance to the letter of their solemn treaties. They have, in a period of peace, invaded the territory and violated the independence of the Swiss nation, in defiance of the treaty of Lunéville, which had stipulated the independence of their territory, and the right of the inhabitants to choose their own form of government. They have annexed to the dominions of France, Piedmont, Parma, and Piacenza, and the island of Elba, without allotting any provision to the king of Sardinia, whom they have despoiled of the most valuable part of his territory, though they were bound by a solemn engagement to the emperor of Russia to attend to his interests, and to provide for his establishment. It may indeed with truth be asserted, that the period which has elapsed since the conclusion of the definitive treaty has been marked with one continued series of aggression, violence, and insult, on the part of the French government."

With regard to Malta, the declaration proceeded to state, "that when the French government demanded its evacuation, several articles of the treaty of Amiens respecting it remained unexecuted. The tenth article had stipulated that the independence of the island should be placed under the guarantee and protection of Great Britain, France, Austria, Russia, Spain, and Prussia. The emperor of Germany had acceded to the guarantee, but only on condition of a like accession on the part of the other powers specified in the article. The emperor of Russia had refused his accession, except on the condition that the Maltese language should be abrogated; and the King of Prussia had given no answer whatever to the application which had been made to him to accede to the arrangement. That the fundamental principle upon which depended the execution of the other parts of the article had been defeated by the changes which had taken place in the constitution of the order since the conclusion of the treaty of peace. It was to the order of St John of Jerusalem that his majesty was by the first stipulation of the tenth article bound to restore the island of Malta. The order is defined to consist of those languages which were in existence at the time of the conclusion of the treaty.

The three French languages having been abolished, and a Maltese language added to the institution, the order consisted therefore at that time of the following languages, viz. Arragon, Castile, Germany, Bavaria, and Russia. Since the conclusion of the definitive treaty, the languages of Arragon and Castile have been separated from the order by Spain, and part of the Italian language had been abolished by the annexation of Piedmont and Parma to France. There is strong reason to believe that it has been in contemplation to sequester the property of the Bavarian language, and the intention has been avowed of keeping the Russian language within the dominions of the emperor."

The French were also accused of having instigated or effected the whole of these changes, and of thus having rendered it impossible to fulfil that part of the treaty; and it was further remarked, that from a report published by an accredited agent of the French government, Colonel Sebastiani, it appeared that France entertained views hostile to the Turkish empire, the integrity of which had been expressly stipulated, and that this rendered the retention of Malta more necessary. The behaviour of the first consul to Lord Whitworth at his audience was also noticed, together with some other offensive occurrences; and it was observed that "his majesty might add to this list of indignities, the requisition which the French government have repeatedly urged, that the laws and constitution of this country should be changed, relative to the liberty of the press. His majesty might likewise add the calls which the French government have on several occasions made to violate the laws of hospitality, with respect to persons who had found an asylum within his dominions, and against whose conduct no charge whatever has at any time been substantiated. It is impossible to reflect on these different proceedings, and the course which the French government have thought proper to adopt respecting them, without the thorough conviction that they are not the effect of accident, but that they form a part of a system which has been adopted for the purpose of degrading, vilifying, and insulting his majesty and his government."

Administration were now placed in a very singular situation. Mr Fox, who opposed the war, proposed that an attempt should be made to prevail with the emperor of Russia to mediate a peace, upon the supposition that, if his mediation was rejected by France, we might be able to secure an alliance with him; and to this proposal administration acceded; but although Mr Fox opposed the war, almost the whole of the other members of the old opposition, including Mr Sheridan and Mr Tierney, strongly approved of it, while Mr Pitt and the rest of the ex-ministry joined in the opinion. As Bonaparte had threatened to attempt an invasion, the parties out of power laid hold of this circumstance to excite alarm, and industriously represented the actual ministers as men of moderate capacity, unfit to be intrusted with the defence of the empire in a perilous crisis. Mr Pitt and his colleagues, in their speeches in parliament, represented the nation as in danger of being instantly invaded by an innumerable host of experienced troops, who could not be expected to delay more than a few days the attempt to land upon our shores; the members of the old opposition held precisely the same language; and the views of both probably were in some degree to terrify the country to call for their services, as men of greater energy than the present rulers. The militia, both ordinary and extraordinary, were called out; a new body of troops was ordered to be raised by ballot, under the appellation of an army of reserve; and corps of volunteers were formed throughout the whole island. An act of parliament was also passed for calling out, in case of actual invasion, the whole male population of the kingdom,

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The administration thus found their adversaries, unlike any former opposition, striving with emulation to do their work for them, and to strengthen government by new armaments of every kind. The consequence was, that during the ensuing autumn, ministers seemed to become perplexed by the multiplicity of business in their hands, and to entertain doubts about the propriety of some of the measures in which they had embarked. The plan of raising such numerous bodies of troops by ballot, while substitution was at the same time permitted to those upon whom the ballot fell, became a most unequal mode of raising an army for the defence of the state, as it fell upon persons not according to their means, but according to their age. But it was attended with one good effect, that as the bodies of volunteers raised by permission of government enjoyed an exemption from certain ballots, this operated, along with the spirit of the country, as a sufficient premium to induce great multitudes of persons to enrol themselves for the purpose of acquiring the military exercise. Ministers at times hesitated to receive the numerous bodies of volunteers who offered themselves; but as they afterwards departed from this reluctance, nearly four hundred thousand men were trained to the use of arms, exclusive of the regular army, the militia, and the army of reserve.

In the meanwhile the ports of France were closely blockaded, and the foreign possessions of the French seized; while the only step of retaliation in their power to exert consisted in seizing the electorate of Hanover, which they plundered unmercifully. Bonaparte offered to give up Hanover as the price of Malta; but his offer was refused.

The most inconvenient circumstance to Great Britain, arising out of those political transactions, consisted in the great embarrassment occasioned to persons engaged in commerce, which proved the cause of numerous bankruptcies. Towards the close of the former war trade had found out for itself regular channels; and, in particular, the port of Hamburg had become the great store-house of British merchandise, from which, as a neutral state, it was distributed amongst the countries engaged in the war. The conclusion of a treaty of peace produced the daily expectation of a renewal of the intercourse with France, and therefore put a stop to the circuitous trade by Hamburg. But as no place was substituted instead of the latter, a suspension of operations in some manufactures occurred; and when these difficulties were coming to a close, the renewal of the war produced a new uncertainty as to the channels in which the European trade would hereafter flow. The difficulty was increased in consequence of the invasion of Hanover by the French, and their excluding the British from the navigation of the Elbe, while the latter in their turn blockaded the river with ships of war, and thus excluded all the world.

Parliament assembled on the 22d of November. In the speech from the throne his majesty said,—"Since I last met you in parliament, it has been my chief object to carry into effect those measures which your wisdom had adopted for the defence of the united kingdom, and for the vigorous prosecution of the war. In these preparations I have been seconded by the voluntary exertions of all ranks of my people, in a manner that has, if possible, strengthened their claims to my confidence and affection. They have proved that the menaces of the enemy have only served to rouse their native and hereditary spirit; and that all other considerations are lost in a general disposition to

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The usual address to the throne was unanimously carried, though Mr Fox complained that nothing had been said respecting the state of our negotiations with Russia. The debates in parliament during the present session were by no means interesting. In the course of the winter, the French government continued to repeat with much confidence their threats of invasion, and the people of Great Britain remained in daily expectation that a landing would be attempted. But nothing of any importance took place. Bonaparte travelled repeatedly from Paris to the sea-coast, and back again to Paris. It was announced that a body of guides had been formed to conduct the invading army after it had landed in England; and the generals and admirals by whom the expedition was to be conducted were said to have gone to their respective posts. Nothing however occurred, excepting the sailing from one French port to another, under the cover of land-batteries, of small parties of flat-bottomed boats, which, at times, evaded the vigilance of the British cruisers, though they were frequently captured, driven ashore, or sunk.

CHAP. XVIII.

REIGN OF GEORGE III.—RESUMPTION OF HOSTILITIES.—WAR WITH FRANCE AND HER ALLIES.

Parliamentary Proceedings.—Change of Ministry, and return of Mr Pitt to power.—Military Events.—Occupation of Hanover.—Boulogne Armament.—Internal Defect.—Volunteer System.—Naval Operations.—Colonial Conquests.—Spain declares War against Britain.—Battle of Trafalgar, and Death of Lord Nelson.—Continental Affairs in 1803.—Survival of General Mack and his Army at Ulm.—Austrians and Russians defeated at Austerlitz.—Parliamentary Proceedings.—Session of 1805.—Charges against Lord Melville.—Illness and Death of Mr Pitt, 23d January 1806.—New Ministry, called "All the Talents."—Act for a Limited Term of Military Service.—Budget.—Trial and Acquittal of Lord Melville.—New Parliament.—Lord Henry Petty's Plan of Finance.—Abolition of the Slave Trade.—Catholic Relief Bill.—Fall of the Grenville or Fox Administration.—Observations on the Ministry of 1806.—The Ministry of 1807, or Federal Administration.—Events of the War.—Naval Actions in 1806.—Negotiations at Paris.—Failure of these.—Prussia.—War between that Power and France.—Battle of Jena, and subsequent Military Operations in Poland.—Battles of Eylau and Friedland.—Treaty of Tilsit, 1st July 1807.—Expedition to Copenhagen.—Buenos Ayres.—Whitelet's Dis-

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naustrous Expedition.—Battle of Maida.—Threatened Attack on Constantinople.—Sicily.—Sweden.—Portugal and Spain.—Battle of Viminia.—Convention of Cintra.—Sir John Moore's Campaign.—His Advance and Retreat.—Battle of Corunna.—Session of 1808.—Local Militia.—Orders in Council.—Session of 1809.—Charges against the Duke of York.—Changes in the Cabinet.—Campaign of 1809.—Battle of Talavera.—Attack on the French Fleet in Basque Roads.—Movements of Austria.—Expedition to the Scheldt.—Session of 1810.—Walcheren Expedition.—Commitment of Sir Francis Burdett to the Tower.—Scottish Clergy and Judiciary Acts.—Campaign of 1810 in Portugal and Spain.—Battle of Busaco.—Subsequent Operations.—Advance of Massena.—Lines of Torres Vedras.—Retreat of the French under Massena.—Battle of Barrosa.

The parliamentary proceedings in the summer session of 1803 were remarkable, as indicating the existence of three or four distinct parties, amidst an almost general concurrence in support of the war. These parties were, first, that of the ministry and their usual followers; secondly, that of the Grenvilles and Mr Windham, who had all along blamed the peace of Amiens, and predicted that it would prove a mere truce; thirdly, that of Mr Pitt and Lord Melville, who, after asserting that peace, had, on the continued aggressions of Bonaparte, become ardent supporters of war; and, fourthly, that of Mr Fox, with a part of the old opposition, who were of opinion that the war might have been avoided. But the last were so far from being numerous, that a motion, made on the 23d of May, to express the concurrence of parliament in the war, was opposed by a minority of only ten in the Peers and sixty-seven in the Commons. A subsequent measure, in the same spirit, namely, an act for arming a large part of the population, was carried in July by a great majority; and similar ardour was evinced in submitting anew to war taxes, particularly to a five per cent. income-tax. After the adoption of several other measures of a like description, and a most interesting session of nine months, parliament was prorogued on 12th August.

The next session opened on the 23d of November, and discovered the same alacrity for the prosecution of the war, mixed, however, with a growing opposition to ministers. Mr Pitt had, from the beginning of the war, foreborne to commend them, and, since the failure of a negotiation to bring him into office, had assumed a language occasionally hostile. He continued to support their propositions for the public defence, and frequently improved them in their progress through parliament; but he disclaimed all personal connection with ministers, and at last treated them as incapable of originating any measure of vigour or utility. This disposition could scarcely fail to be turned to account by those busy intermediaries, who find means to combine the efforts even of opposite parties for the purpose of getting into power. On the 15th of March Mr Pitt, aware of the side on which the public was most alive to alarm, brought forward a motion for an inquiry into the management of the navy. On this occasion, severe as was his language in regard to Lord St Vincent, then at the head of the admiralty, he received the support of the opposition, and had on his side a hundred and thirty votes against two hundred and one. From this time forward the strength of ministers was visibly shaken. On the 23d of April Mr Fox brought forward an eagerly-expected motion on the defence of the country, in which Mr Pitt joined, with great animosity against the ministers. On a division, government had a majority of fifty-two, which, in a second debate, on the 25th of April, was reduced to thirty-seven. Soon after this, ministers resigned, and Mr Pitt, called to the royal presence, was desired to form an administration, exclusive, however, of Mr Fox. This pre-emptory order, and Mr Pitt's too ready acquiescence in it, proved the source of the greatest difficulties.

The Grenvilles had recently so connected themselves with Mr Fox and his friends, that a separation would have been altogether dishonourable; and their united strength, joined to the occasional support of Mr Addington's adherents, was the cause, during the remainder of the session, of very strong divisions against the new ministers, particularly in the Commons. Their chief measure, entitled the Additional Force Bill, was carried by only two hundred and sixty-five to two hundred and twenty-three. The session soon afterwards closed, but not without passing a corn bill, evidently intended to dispose the landed interest to submit to the new taxes, and prohibiting the importation of foreign wheat whenever our own should be at or below sixty-three shillings the quarter.

On the continent of Europe, the only great operation was the invasion, or rather occupation, of Hanover, to which allusion has already been made. War having been declared by us on the 18th May, the French troops advanced from Holland, and entered the electoral capital by the 3th of June. To attempt resistance would have been folly; but in a season when soldiers were so much wanted in England, and so great an expense was incurred in training them, it was matter of regret that the Hanoverian troops, in number about fifteen thousand, should not have been marched down to the coast, and embarked in a body, instead of being disbanded and obliged to pledge themselves not to serve against France until exchanged.

On the side of France the aspect of war was displayed in a great encampment at Boulogne, and in the dispatch, from all the ports along the coast, of flotillas of boats to join the armament preparing in that central rendezvous. These petty convoys had instructions to tempt our cruisers to attack them, and to draw them, at fit occasions, under the fire of land-batteries; and they were sometimes successful in doing so. The main object of Bonaparte was to excite alarm; a course which, however politic toward some countries, was certainly ill judged in regard to one where the executive power, in its inability to coerce, often seeks support in the apprehensions of the public. The general impression of dread facilitated the measures of defence, and led to the volunteer system, which was carried to an unparalleled extent. Never did a country exhibit so many of the middle and higher classes under arms as England and Scotland in 1803; and never did individuals in these stations make more personal sacrifices for the object of national defence. The result was effectual to as great a degree as the situation of the individuals permitted. The volunteers made as near an approach to regularity of discipline as was practicable in the case of men full of ardour, and submitting for a season to the restraint of military service, but necessarily devoid of experience in the field. The error lay in carrying volunteering too far; for the system ought never to have been allowed to extend to a length that absorbed no inconsiderable part of the time and money of men whose lives were too valuable to be indiscriminately exposed, and whose proper aid to the public cause was the tribute of their industry. The volunteer system was of real use only in as far as it promoted cordiality in the common cause, and, by assuring the maintenance of tranquillity at home, enabled government to dispose of the regulars in the field.

The plan of collecting flotillas of boats, from east to west, in the central depot of Boulogne, was continued by Bonaparte, during two years, from the middle of 1803 to that of 1805. A great parade was made of the number of troops ready to embark, and of the determination to encounter all hazards; but there was no efficient support by ships of war, until the spring of 1805, when the sailing of squadrons for the West Indies took place, first from Rochefort, and afterwards from Cadiz. These, it was cal-

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Reign of George III. culated, might excite alarm for our colonies, and induce government to send thither a portion of the men of war hitherto reserved for home defence; after which the hazardous attempt of a descent might have entered seriously into the calculations of the French ruler. That it did so at this time was positively affirmed by him in conversations held with English gentlemen in the island of Elba, and afterwards in that of St Helena; but these conversations were marked by sundry misrepresentations; for he attributed the non-execution of the attempt entirely to the threatened coalition on the Continent, and would not acknowledge that it was impracticable—a matter of nautical calculation, when our government kept our channel fleet at home, instead of sending it, as he had anticipated, to the West Indies.

Such was the aspect of the war during two years, in which our naval superiority led to an easy conquest of several of the Dutch and French West India colonies. St Lucia surrendered on the 23d of June 1803; Tobago, on the 1st of July; Demerara and Berbice, on the 23d of September; and Cape Town, the last spot in the French half of St Domingo, occupied by French troops, capitulated to the Blacks on the 30th of November. Next year was taken the small island of Goree, on the coast of Africa, and soon after the important Dutch colony of Surinam. On the other hand, we were not successful in our attempts on the French flotillas on their own shores. One of these was directed against a convoy on the coast between Flushing and Ostend; another, on a larger scale, and very different plan, was pointed at the Boulogne armament, which it was proposed to blow up by *catamarans*; an attempt no less unsuited to open and generous warfare than the torpedoes of the Americans. Fortune was more favourable to us in encounters with the enemy in the open ocean, where, in the early part of 1804, a striking proof of the effects of intrepidity was given in the case of a fleet of merchantmen from China, which beat off, or at least deterred from action, a French squadron under Admiral Linois, consisting of a ship of eighty guns and three frigates.

The war hitherto had been with France and Holland only; but a new power was now to be added to the list of our antagonists. Spain had been allowed by Bonaparte to avoid participating in the contest, on condition of paying a large annual contribution; a condition so contrary to real neutrality, that for some time past our government had kept a vigilant eye on the expected arrival of her treasure ships from America. A small squadron of four frigates, sent out to intercept these valuable supplies, met, on the 5th of October 1804, a Spanish squadron of a similar number proceeding towards Cadiz; and the Spanish commander refusing to surrender, an engagement ensued, attended with the capture of three of the Spanish frigates, and the explosion of the fourth, accompanied with the loss of many lives. This decisive act, approved at home by the advocates of vigorous measures, was productive of the worst impressions as regards our national honour both in Spain and her colonies, and led soon afterwards to a declaration of war by that power.

Bonaparte was now provided with additional means of threatening our distant possessions. A squadron of five sail of the line escaping from Rochefort, landed a body of nearly four thousand men on the island of Dominica, and burned the chief town; the island of St Kitt's escaped with paying a contribution and the loss of some merchantmen. But this was only a prelude to the arrival of a much more formidable fleet, which, to the number of eighteen sail of the line, French and Spanish, reached the West Indies in the end of May, and spread alarm throughout the islands; an alarm not dispelled till the arrival of a force inferior by nearly one third, but commanded by Lord

Nelson. The hostile fleet soon after set out on its homeward voyage. Intelligence to that effect was opportunely received by Lord Barham, then at the head of the admiralty; and a fleet, detached to cruise on their supposed track, had the good fortune to fall in with them on the 22d July. An action took place; two sail of the line, Spanish ships, were captured; night terminated the conflict; and though it might have been renewed on the succeeding days, an unfortunate indecision on the part of our admiral, Sir Robert Calder, allowed the enemy to escape. They soon afterwards repaired to Ferrol, whence they sailed with augmented force, and reached Cadiz.

To watch them there, or to engage them on their coming out, was now an object of the highest moment; and it was to Lord Nelson that this important trust was committed. Joining our fleet off Cadiz on the 20th September, he avoided keeping in sight, and even dispensed with the aid of six sail of the line, which he sent to a distance along the coast; judging that the enemy, when apprized of their absence, would be induced to come out. Accordingly, the combined fleet left Cadiz on the 19th of October. To the number of thirty-three sail of the line, eighteen French and fifteen Spanish, commanded by Admiral Villeneuve, and early on the 21st came in sight of the British fleet, consisting of twenty-seven sail of the line, off Cape Trafalgar, about half way between Cadiz and Gibraltar. The enemy, convinced that their former defeats at sea had been owing to the want of concentration and mutual support, now formed a double line, every alternate ship being about a cable's length to windward of her second ahead and astern, so that any of our ships, attempting to penetrate, would be exposed to the fire of two or of three antagonists. Nelson, while yet distant, perceived their arrangement, and understood its object. It was new, but he was satisfied that no concentration in the open sea could prevent our vessels from coming to close action with their opponents, in which case the result could not be doubtful. He consequently made no alteration in his previous plan, which was to make the order of sailing the order of battle, the fleet being in two lines, with an advanced squadron of eight of the fastest sailing two-deckers; but directed the fleet to advance to the attack in two divisions, one of which, under Admiral Collingwood, intersected that part of the enemy's line which gave it nearly an equal number of ships to encounter; whilst Nelson, with the other division, acted on a similar plan. Such was the only general manœuvre in this great action. By our superior seamanship, and our ships keeping near each other, we had in some cases a local superiority; but the general character of the fight was a conflict of ship to ship; and its decision in our favour was owing to that skill in working the guns, to that dexterity in an occasional change of position, and that confidence of success which characterizes a naval force in a high state of discipline. Our loss, amounting to sixteen hundred men, was in part caused by the riflemen in the enemy's rigging; an ungenerous mode of warfare, which may deprive an opposing force of officers, but can have little effect on the general issue of a conflict. The fighting began at noon, became general in less than half an hour, and lasted from two to three hours; in the case of a few ships it continued longer, but all firing was over by half-past four o'clock. The victory was complete, but purchased by the death of Nelson, who was mortally wounded by a musket ball fired from the mizen-top of the Redoubtable, by one of the enemy's riflemen, and expired just as the action closed. Nineteen sail of the line struck; but unfortunately gales of wind, after the action, wrecked part of our prizes, and necessitated the destruction of others. Four sail, however, were preserved; and four more, which had escaped, under Rear-admiral Dumanor, were

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Reign of George III. met on their northward course, on the 2d of November, and captured off Cape Ortegal, by a squadron under Sir Richard Strachan.

But upon the continent of Europe the course of public events was very different. The year had been ushered in by a letter of Bonaparte to our sovereign, containing pacific expressions couched in general terms. An answer was given, not by the king, but, according to diplomatic usage, by our minister for foreign affairs, to the French minister in the same station, expressing a similar wish for peace, but adding, that it was incumbent on us to consult our allies, particularly the emperor of Russia. The French ridiculed the assertion of our being on confidential terms with that court; but Russia had in fact begun to listen to the proposal of forming a coalition against France on an extensive scale. The basis of this compact was a treaty signed at St Petersburg in April. Russia, Austria, Sweden, Naples, all acceded to it, and hopes were entertained of the co-operation of Prussia. Bonaparte, apprized of this, affected to be absorbed in arrangements for immediately invading England, but secretly prepared to march his troops from Boulogne to the Rhine. After throwing on the Austrians the odium of aggression, by allowing them to attack Bavaria before he acted, he proceeded to execute a plan singularly adapted to the overweening confidence of his opponent, General Mack, who by this time had traversed Bavaria and advanced to Ulm. By executing forced marches, and violating part of the neutral territory of Prussia, Bonaparte reached first the flank, and soon afterwards the rear, of the enemy, who clung with blind pertinacity to the position of Ulm. The result to the Austrians was a series of checks in the field, and eventually the surrender, by capitulation, of more than thirty thousand men. The road to Vienna was thus opened to Bonaparte. He marched thither, crossed the Danube, proceeded northward, and at Austerlitz, on the 2d of December, displayed his military combinations in all their lustre, gaining over the Austrians and Russians, with forces not superior, a victory which compelled Austria to immediate peace; and thus by one blow broke up the coalition.

Before the opening of the session of 1805, an overture, suggested, it is said, by the sovereign personally, was made to Mr Addington; and, after some discussion, it was accepted, Mr Addington receiving the presidency of the council for himself, and corresponding situations for his friends. With this support ministers met parliament; and in one of the first great questions the approval of the war with Spain obtained the concurrence of three hundred and thirteen votes against a hundred and six. In subsequent divisions, the majorities, though less decisive, were considerable, until the 6th of April, when Mr Whitbread brought forward a most interesting discussion on the tenth report of the commissioners of naval inquiry, which implicated Lord Melville. This question, debated in a full house, produced a division of two hundred and sixteen against two hundred and sixteen, when, after a most anxious pause, the resolutions moved by Mr Whitbread were carried by the casting vote of the speaker. This led immediately to the resignation by Lord Melville of his office of first lord of the admiralty, and was followed by the erasure of his name from the list of privy counsellors. Some time after, his lordship was, at his own desire, heard before the House of Commons; and whilst he acknowledged that temporary irregularities in the appropriation of the public money had taken place when he was treasurer of the navy, he disclaimed, on his honour, the alleged participation in the profits of Mr Trotter, who had acted as his paymaster. But the expectations of the public were raised, and a prosecution, in some shape or other, was indispensable. A motion for an impeachment before the Lords, made by Mr

Reign of George III. Whitbread, was lost by two hundred and seventy-two to a hundred and ninety-five; but the Addington party joining opposition in a motion for a criminal prosecution, the latter was carried by two hundred and thirty-eight against two hundred and twenty-nine. Lord Melville and his friends, dreading this more than an impeachment, found means, by a sudden division of the house, to rescind the vote to that effect, and to decide on an impeachment before the Lords. And parliament was prorogued after giving ministers a vote of credit to the extent of three millions, to be applied, if necessary, in subsidies to continental powers.

The proceedings against Lord Melville made a deep impression on Mr Pitt, and deprived him of his only efficient coadjutor, at a time when, from the magnitude of his public cares, he was more than ever in want of support. The consequent fatigue and anxiety made severe inroads on a constitution naturally not strong. His indisposition became apparent in the early part of winter, and on the meeting of parliament, it was understood to have reached a dangerous height. His death took place on the 23d January 1806. A motion, brought forward a few days after, to grant a public funeral, and to erect a monument to the late excellent minister, excited much discussion. Mr Fox paid a high tribute to the financial merits of his great rival, which, in fact, were extremely questionable; but he could not join in ascribing the epithet of "excellent" to measures which he had so often opposed. Mr Windham also opposed the vote; and the Grenvilles chose to be absent. Still the motion was carried by two hundred and fifty-eight against a hundred and sixty-nine. To a subsequent proposition for a grant of £40,000 for the payment of Mr Pitt's debts, no opposition was made.

The public attention was now fixed on the approaching change of ministry. The king, in concurrence, it is said, with the death-bed recommendation of Mr Pitt, sent for Lord Grenville, desired him to form a ministry, and made no opposition to the admission of Mr Fox into the cabinet; but he is said to have expressed a desire that the Duke of York should retain the office of commander-in-chief. The new administration was formed on a broad basis, comprising the friends of Lord Grenville, those of Mr Fox, and those of Lord Sidmouth. But hardly had they entered upon office when circumstances occurred which placed in a striking light the different conduct of men when in and out of power. Lord Grenville thought fit to hold the incompatible offices of first lord and auditor of the treasury, and the chief justice was admitted to a seat in the cabinet, whilst Mr Fox consented to come forward as the vindicator of both.

The defence of the country against the great military power of France being still the most anxious consideration, the first measure of a comprehensive nature was brought forward by Mr Windham, whose station in the new ministry was the war department. It proposed the repeal of Mr Pitt's additional force bill, and a plan for improving the regular army, by substituting a limited for an unlimited term of service, and by granting a small increase of pay after the expiration of the prescribed term. These propositions, brought forward in the end of April and beginning of May, were warmly opposed; they passed, however, by a great majority in both houses, and would, doubtless, have conducted materially to the improvement of our army had they received a fair trial; but the succeeding ministries sought, during the whole war, to procure enlistments for life. In France, since 1817, the rule is, to be scrupulous about the character of recruits, to give little or no bounty, but to limit the period of service, and to increase the pay after the expiration of the specified term. The same principle, differently modified, prevails both in Prussia and in Austria.

Reign of George III. Of the budget, the most remarkable feature was an increase of the property-tax from six and a half to ten per cent, the odium of which ministers sought to lessen by the appointment of a board of auditors to examine the long-standing arrears in public accounts. In regard to trade, the principles of this ministry, though little understood, and even disliked by the great majority of merchants, were entitled to much attention. They attempted to introduce into our practical policy some of the doctrines of Dr Smith, doctrines which Mr Pitt had studied in his early years, but to which circumstances had not allowed him to give an extensive application. The letter of our navigation laws forbade all intercourse between our colonies and other countries; but our West India colonies were, in time of war, so dependent on the United States for provisions, that it had been customary with the island governors to take on themselves the responsibility of infringing these acts, and to obtain regularly a bill of indemnity from parliament. Mr Fox now brought in a bill termed the American Intercourse Act, the purport of which was, to authorize the governors of our colonies to do, during the remainder of the war, that which they had hitherto done from year to year, and to dispense with any application for indemnity. This bill, moderate and politic as it in fact was, met with keen opposition in parliament, and with still keener out of doors from the shipping and commercial interests. It passed into a law; but it was denounced as a glaring infraction of our navigation code, and contributed, more than any other measure, to shake the popularity of ministers.

The trial of Lord Melville before the House of Peers began on the 29th of April 1806. The charges against him, little understood by the public at large, related to an infraction of his official duty, not as a member of the cabinet, but in his early and inferior station of treasurer of the navy. These charges may be comprised under the following heads: That he had allowed Mr Trotter, his paymaster, to take the temporary use and profit of sums of money lodged in the bank for the naval expenditure; that he had himself participated in such profits; and, finally, that he had applied certain sums of the public money to his private use. All participation in the speculations or profit of his paymaster his lordship positively denied, but he acknowledged a temporary appropriation of the sum of £10,000 in a way which private honour and public duty forbade him to reveal. The trial closed on the 12th of June. The articles of impeachment had been extended to the number of ten, and on all of them there was a majority of peers for his acquittal; but whilst in regard to the charge of conniving at stock speculations by Trotter, or converting the public money to his private use, the majorities were triumphant, the case was otherwise in regard to his lordship's permitting an unauthorized appropriation of the public money by Trotter, and receiving from him temporary loans, the records of which were afterwards destroyed.

Though the present parliament had completed only four sessions, ministers determined on a dissolution, doubtless from a wish to have the benefit of the government influence in the new elections. They knew their weakness at court, and flattered themselves that a decided ascendancy in parliament would enable them to press, with greater confidence, measures for which they could not boast the cordial concurrence of their royal master. For the time of the new election they chose the moment of national excitement caused by the recall of our ambassador from the French capital. The first debate in the new House of Commons related to the abortive negotiation for peace; and although the publication of the official papers excited some surprise, and showed that Bonaparte had at one

time carried his offers of concession considerably farther than the public had supposed, there prevailed so general a distrust towards him, that Mr Whitbread stood almost alone in the opinion that the negotiation ought to have been continued. After some renewed discussions on Mr Windham's military measures, Lord Henry Petty, then chancellor of the exchequer, brought forward a plan of finance, which, assuming the expense of the current year as equal to that of subsequent years of war, professed to provide, without new taxes, for a contest of fourteen years or more. This plan contained an anticipated calculation of the loans necessary for several years to come, and supposed that a sum equal to ten per cent. on each loan should be appropriated from the war taxes, of which five per cent. should serve to pay the interest of the loan, and the other five per cent. form a sinking fund, which, by the operation of compound interest, would redeem the capital in fourteen years; leaving the whole ten per cent. again applicable to the same purpose should the war continue. That this plan possessed, no more than those of Pitt or Vansittart, the merit of increasing the productive power of our revenue, has been already shown by Dr Hamilton in his well-known *Treatise on the National Debt*. Its merit, had it been tried, would have been found to consist, as that of such plans generally does, in a support, perhaps a temporary increase, of public credit. It may even be questioned whether the same ministry, had they continued in office, would have restricted themselves to a limited expenditure in 1808, when the Spanish struggle called forth such a burst of national enthusiasm. There cannot, however, be a doubt that they would have avoided the orders in council, which, by depriving us of the unseen but powerful aid of neutral traffic, gave the first great blow to our bank paper, and consequently to our public funds.

The bill for the abolition of the slave-trade was now brought forward with all the weight of government support, and carried by triumphant majorities; in the Lords by a hundred to thirty-six, in the Commons by two hundred and eighty-three to sixteen. This prompt termination of a struggle of twenty years showed how easily the measure might have been carried had not Mr Pitt declined to give it ministerial support; a course suggested to him probably by a dread of offending the West India planters, but founded in a great measure on misapprehension, since the most respectable part of that body, the proprietors of long-settled estates, were far from being adverse to the abolition, calculated as it was to prevent that superabundance of produce which to them is the most serious of evils. This proved the last important bill of the Grenville ministry, whose removal from office took place very unexpectedly, in consequence of a difference with the sovereign about the Irish Catholics.

The bill which produced this sudden change was introduced by Lord Howick on the 5th of March, and entitled, "A bill to enable his majesty to avail himself of the services of all his liege subjects in his naval and military forces in the manner therein mentioned;" that is, by their taking an oath contained in the bill, after which they should be left to the free exercise of their religion. Here, as in the case of the American intercourse with the West Indies, the intention was less to introduce a new practice, than to permit by law what was already permitted by connivance. The draught of the bill had been previously submitted to the king, and returned by him without objection; but the royal attention was more closely drawn to it on its introduction into parliament, and on a vehement opposition from Mr Perceval, who described it as part of a system of dangerous innovation, and as a precursor of the abolition of all religious tests. The king now intimated his disapprobation of the bill to ministers, who endeavoured to modify

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it, but still without succeeding in rendering it acceptable to their sovereign. They then felt the necessity of withdrawing the bill, but inserted in the cabinet minutes a declaration, reserving to themselves two points: the liberty of delivering their opinion in parliament in favour of the proposed measure, and of bringing it forward at a future period. This minute was unfortunately couched in terms too positive, if not disrespectful to the king, who, always tenacious on the Catholic question, and never personally cordial with Lords Grenville and Howick, insisted that they should pledge themselves in writing never to press him again on the subject. Ministers declining to comply, the king consulted with Lord Eldon about forming a new ministry, and, receiving a ready assurance of the practicability of such a measure, refused to listen to a modified acquiescence with his late order, offered rather tardily by Lord Grenville. Ministers gave up the seals of office on 25th March; and next day the change and the causes which led to it were fully discussed in parliament. A short adjournment now took place, after which there occurred some remarkable trials of strength between the two parties. An independent member, Mr Brand, with reference to the conditions on which the ministry had come into office, made a motion, that it was contrary to the duty of members of the cabinet to restrain themselves by a pledge from advising the king on any subject. This motion produced a very long debate, but was lost by two hundred and fifty-eight against two hundred and twenty-six; while a corresponding motion in the Lords was lost by a hundred and seventy-one to ninety. A subsequent proposition, to express the regret of the house at the removal from office of so firm and stable an administration, was lost by two hundred and forty-four against a hundred and ninety-eight; and it became apparent, that in parliament, as at court, the fall of the Grenville ministry was decided.

It remains to make a few observations on their conduct when in office; and here an impartial inquirer will not be long in discovering that both their merits and demerits have been greatly exaggerated. Their war measures proved unimportant, particularly in the point which, in the then ardent state of the public mind, superseded all others—the annoyance of France; and the result was, an unconsciousness in the greater part of the people of what was really valuable in their views and conduct. Yet Mr Fox brought to the department of foreign affairs an intimate knowledge of continental politics, and an exemption from national prejudices, far, however, from being accompanied, as the vulgar supposed, by an indifference to our national interests. Lord Grenville, if naturally less conciliating, and less fitted for grand views, possessed a practical knowledge of business, and had become aware in retirement of the various errors which had arisen from a too early introduction into office. They had a liberal feeling towards Ireland and the United States; and though by no means lukewarm in their resistance to Bonaparte, they all held the impracticability of making any impression on his power by force of arms, until the occurrence of some combination of circumstances which should justify a grand and united effort. In what manner they would have acted had they been in power when the general insurrection in Spain burst forth, the public have no means of judging; so different is the language, and even the feeling, of politicians when in and out of office. Several of their measures, such as the introduction of the lord chief justice to a seat in the cabinet, and the assent to the appointment of such a commander as Whitelocke, were singularly ill-judged. To place Lord Grey, and after him Mr T. Grenville, at the head of the admiralty, was to declare to the public that professional knowledge was unnecessary in that high station, as if its

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effects had not been most beneficially displayed in the administration, short as it was, of Lord Barham. Finally, their intemperate declaration in the cabinet minute of the 12th of March evinced a strange miscalculation of their strength, when put in opposition to the personal will of the sovereign and the existing prejudices of the public. The result was, that their fall caused no regret to the majority of the nation, and that the errors of their successors excited no wish for their recall.

Of the new ministry, the efficient members were, Mr Perceval, chancellor of the exchequer; Mr Canning, minister for foreign affairs; Lord Castlereagh for the war, and Lord Liverpool for the home department. One of their first measures was a prorogation of the parliament, followed by a dissolution, which gave them, in the elections, the advantage so lately enjoyed by their predecessors, with the further advantage of an alarm, strangely excited in the public mind, on the ground of popery. The new parliament met on the 22d of June, and, after passing the bills requisite for the army, navy, and other current business, was prorogued on the 14th of August.

The alternation of fortune by sea and land was so great, that 1806 had hardly commenced when fresh successes were obtained over the French navy. A division of the Brest squadron, after landing troops in the Spanish part of St Domingo, was overtaken by a superior force, and three sail of the line captured and two burned. Admiral Lincois, returning from India, was captured in the Marengo of eighty guns; and, at a subsequent date, of a squadron of frigates detached from Rochefort for the West Indies, four fell into our hands.

It was under these circumstances that a negotiation for peace was for some months carried on at Paris. It began in consequence of an overture from Talleyrand, eagerly embraced by Mr Fox; and Lord Yarmouth, who happened to be under detention in France, was made the first medium of communication and conference. In its more advanced stage, the negotiation was intrusted to Lord Lauderdale; and at one period, namely, in September, the conciliatory tone of the French inspired a hope of peace; a hope soon disappointed, when it was found that the offers of Bonaparte were followed by the demand of Sicily, and that, whilst professing an ardent wish for peace, he was extending his usurpations in Germany, and secretly preparing to subvert the power of Prussia.

The humiliation of Austria left Bonaparte at liberty to direct his manoeuvres, both diplomatic and military, against her northern rival. Affecting great indignation at the friendly disposition shown by Prussia, in the preceding autumn, towards the coalition, he demanded the cession of a portion of her territory in the south-west, and, in return, transferred to her Hanover, in the hope of kindling the flame of discord between her and England. The Prussians accordingly entered Hanover; the local government making no resistance, and our cabinet taking no retaliatory measure, except the detention of vessels bearing the Prussian flag; a measure adopted, not in the spirit of hostility, but to satisfy popular clamour in England. The discussions between France and Prussia continued during the summer of 1806, and, from the blind confidence of one party, and the artifice of the other, assumed at last a serious aspect. War was declared; the battle of Jena deprived Prussia of her army, her capital, and her fortresses; and her court was fugitive in the north of Poland, ere there had been time to send, or even to concert the sending of succours from England. The Grenville ministry, less eager than their predecessors to embark in continental war, confined themselves to sending a general officer, Lord Hutchinson, to the Russian head-quarters, and to the grant of a limited subsidy. For some time the difficulties of the country, and the firm

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resistance of the Russians, particularly at Eylau, encouraged the hope of arresting the progress of Bonaparte; but this hope was disappointed by the battle of Friedland, and still more by the approximation of the court of Russia to that of France.

The treaty of Tilsit excited alarm, less from its specific provisions, than from the probable consequences of the co-operation of the contracting powers. Among these, some persons reckoned, or pretended to reckon, the equipping against us of the Danish navy, a force of sixteen sail of the line, not manned or ready for sea, but capable of being fitted out without a great sacrifice. The ministry of 1807 founded their claim to public favour on a system of vigour,—on a course altogether opposite to the cautious calculations of their predecessors. No sooner were they apprized of the treaty of Tilsit, than, without waiting for its effect on the Danish government, they determined on the as yet unexampled measure of taking forcible possession of a neutral fleet. A powerful armament of twenty thousand troops and twenty-seven sail of the line, prepared ostensibly against Flushing and Antwerp, was directed to proceed to the Sound, there to await the result of a negotiation opened at Copenhagen. This negotiation was intrusted to a special envoy, who represented the danger to Denmark from France and Russia, and demanded the delivery of the Danish fleet to England, under a solemn stipulation of its being restored on the termination of our war with France. The Danes, justly offended at this proposal, and aware that their agreeing to it would expose them to the loss of the continental part of their territory, refused: our envoy returned on board our fleet: our army was landed, and Copenhagen invested by sea and land, while a part of our fleet cut off all communication between the continent and the island on which it stands. After a fortnight passed in preparations, a heavy fire was opened on the city, and continued during two days with very great effect. A capitulation now took place; the citadel, dockyards, and batteries were put into our hands, and no time was lost in fitting out the Danish men of war for sea. All stores, timber, and other articles of naval equipment, belonging to government, were taken out of the arsenals, embarked, and conveyed to England.

The expedition to Copenhagen excited much discussion and difference of opinion in England, particularly when it was avowed that ministers had no evidence of an intention in Russia to coerce Denmark, and still less of a disposition in Denmark to give way to such coercion. The only tenable ground was, to acknowledge at once that the Danes had given no provocation whatever; that their conduct had been strictly neutral; but that they would evidently have been unable to defend themselves had Russia and France united against them. Still it was extremely questionable, whether we, to ward off a contingent annoyance, should have committed a present aggression. The success of our attempt, considering our naval superiority, the insulated position of Copenhagen, and its unprepared state, admitted of little or no doubt. But this was not all. There remained further and more important considerations; the odium that would be thus excited against us in the Danish nation, and that closer approximation of Russia to France, which could hardly fail to follow so open an affront to a power professing to take a lead in the political arrangements of the Baltic.

The Cape of Good Hope surrendered in January 1806 to an armament sent from England. After this, Sir Home Popham, who commanded the naval part of the expedition, ventured to make, without the sanction or even knowledge of government, an attempt on Buenos Ayres. Our troops, although under two thousand in number, effected a landing, and occupied the town. Intelligence to this effect having

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reached England, the popular notion that Buenos Ayres would prove a great market for our manufactures, induced government to take measures for completing the new conquest. And though the inhabitants soon rose and drove out the feeble detachment under Sir Home Popham, an armament, which arrived in January 1807, under the command of Sir Samuel Auchmuty, attacked the strongly fortified town of Monte Video, and carried it by assault, which was conducted with great skill and gallantry. But a very different fate awaited our next enterprise,—an attack on Buenos Ayres, planned by General Whitelocke, an officer wholly unfit for this or any other kind of service. Our troops, eight thousand in number, were, under every disadvantage, successful in some parts; but failing in others, the result was a negotiation, and a convention that we should withdraw altogether from the country, on the condition of our prisoners being restored.

But in another part of the world, and against an enemy in general far more formidable, our arms had been attended with success. Naples had been engaged in the coalition of 1805, with a view to assail the French on the side of Lombardy; but an Anglo-Russian army, landed for that purpose, had been prevented from marching northward by the disastrous intelligence from Germany. They were subsequently re-embarked, the British withdrawing to Sicily, and Palermo becoming once more the refuge of the Neapolitan court. That court, eager to excite insurrection against the French in Calabria, prevailed on General Sir John Stuart, in the beginning of July 1806, to lead thither a detachment of our troops. They landed, and soon after received intelligence, that at Maida, distant only ten miles from our encampment, was a French corps, already equal to our own, and hourly expecting considerable reinforcements. Our troops marched to attack them on the morning of 4th July, and at nine o'clock drew near to their position, which had a river in front. But General Regnier, who commanded the French, having received his reinforcements the preceding evening, and seeing that his small army was unprovided with cavalry, caused his men to march out of their camp, and advance to charge us on the plain. Our force, including a regiment landed that morning, was nearly six thousand; that of the enemy above seven thousand. The French, who knew our troops only by report, marched towards them with great confidence, not expecting them to stand the charge. Our line, however formed, faced the enemy, and advanced; the forward movement of the opposing lines lessening the intervening distance in a double ratio. On a nearer approach the enemy opened their field-pieces, but, contrary to the usual practice of the French artillery, with little effect. Not so the British; for when our artillery opened, every shot told, and carried off a file of the enemy's line. The lines were now fast closing, being within three hundred yards distance, and a fire having commenced between the sharpshooters on the right. At this moment the enemy seemed to hesitate, halted, and fired a volley. The British line also halted, returned the salute, and having thrown in a second volley, advanced at full charge. The enemy, apparently resolved to stand the shock, kept perfectly steady, till, intimidated by the advance, equally rapid and firm, of an enemy whom they had been taught to despise, their hearts failed, and they fled about and fled, but not in confusion. When they approached within a short distance of their second line, they halted, fronted, and opened a fire of musketry on our line, which did not follow up the charge to any distance, but halted to allow the men to draw breath, and to close up any breaks in their formation. They were soon ready, however, to advance again; and the order to charge having once more been given, our brave troops rushed forward to the onset, the enemy, as

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before, making a show of determination to remain firm. But their courage again failed them; they would not stand the shock; and giving way in greater confusion than before, their first line was thrown upon the second, and both became intermingled in great disorder. Seeing himself thus completely foiled in his attack on the front, and being driven back more than a mile, Regnier now made an attempt to turn the left flank; but this was defeated by the British second line, which, refusing its left, opened an admirably directed and destructive fire, which quickly drove back the enemy with great loss. Their efforts were equally unsuccessful against the right of our line, which also charged in the most gallant and decisive manner, and the field of battle remained entirely in our possession.¹ The French loss in killed and wounded was upwards of two thousand; ours only between three hundred and four hundred. This brilliant exploit produced the evacuation of part of Calabria by the French, but had no other result; our small force returning soon afterwards to Sicily.

Our next operation in the Mediterranean was an unsuccessful menace of the Turkish capital. That court refusing to enter into our plans of hostility to France, our ambassador withdrew, and re-entered the Straits of the Dardanelles with a squadron of seven sail of the line, exclusive of frigates and bombs. They suffered considerably in passing the narrow part of the straits, between the ancient Sestos and Abydos, now called the castles of Romania and Nátolia. Anchoring at a distance of eight miles from Constantinople, our admiral, Sir J. Duckworth, threatened to burn the seraglio and the city, but in vain. The Turks continued adverse to our demands, and employed the interval, wasted by the British commander in useless negotiations, in strengthening the formidable batteries of the Dardanelles. It soon became indispensable therefore to withdraw, and to re-pass the straits; but this was not accomplished without a considerable loss in killed and wounded, the cannon at the castles being of great size, and discharging granite balls, one of which, weighing eight hundred pounds, cut in two the mainmast of the Windsor man of war. A descent made soon after in Egypt was equally unfortunate. A detachment of troops landing at Alexandria, occupied that town, but suffered a severe loss at Rosetta, and eventually withdrew, on the Turks consenting to give up the prisoners they had taken. Peace was soon after concluded with the Turks, and our operations in the Levant were confined to the capture of the Ionian Islands from the French. Zante, Cephalonia, Ithaca, and Corfu, were taken by a small expedition in 1809, and Santa Maura the succeeding year.

On the side of Sicily, our commanders, though pressed by the court of Palermo, refused to make descents on Calabria, which could lead to nothing but partial insurrections, followed, on the return of a superior force, by the death of the most zealous of our partisans. We took, however, in June 1809, the small islands of Ischia and Procida, near the coast of Naples; and, in the autumn of 1810, repelled an attempt of Murat to invade Sicily. A body of nearly four thousand Italians, who had landed on this occasion, were driven back with loss; a failure which, joined to our decided naval superiority, put an end to all attempts of the kind.

The hostility of Russia consequent on her connection with France produced a menaced invasion of Sweden, now our only ally in the north. To aid in repelling it, Sir John Moore was sent to Gottenburg with a body of ten thou-

sand men. This force did not land; but the general, repairing to Stockholm, entered into communications with the king, and had the mortification of finding that prince wholly incapable of rational conduct, and bent on projects which would necessarily involve the sacrifice of the British troops. On this he lost no time in returning to Gottenburg, and soon afterwards brought back the armament to England, to be employed on a more promising service.

The influence possessed by Bonaparte over Spain had long inspired him with the hope of overawing Portugal, and of obliging that country to dissolve her alliance with England. To this hope the humiliation of Germany, and his new alliance with Russia, gave double strength; and, in the latter part of 1807, the most prepotent demands were made on the court of Lisbon. To part of these, implying the exclusion of British merchants from the harbours of Portugal, compliance was promised; but the demand of confiscating English property, and detaining the English resident in Portugal, was met by a decided refusal. A French army now marched towards Lisbon, and threatened openly to overthrow the house of Braganza; but the latter, after some momentary indications of indecision, took the determination of abandoning their European dominions, and proceeding to Brazil. This spirited, and by many unexpected measure, was carried into effect in the end of November, and Lisbon was forthwith occupied by French troops. A few months afterwards occurred the transactions at Bayonne, and the general declaration of hostility by the Spaniards to Bonaparte. Our cabinet now determined to postpone all other projects to that of a vigorous effort in Spain and Portugal. With that view, an armament of ten thousand men, collected at Cork, and said to be intended for Spanish America, sailed in July for the Peninsula, and offered its co-operation to the Spaniards in Galicia. They, however, thought it best that we should confine our aid to Spain to arms and money, directing our military force against the French army in Portugal. Accordingly, our troops, after passing an interval at Oporto, were landed to the southward, in Mondego Bay, where, after receiving the co-operation of another division of British, and of a few Portuguese, they proceeded on their southward march towards Lisbon. The first actions took place with French detachments at the small town of Obidos, and at Rorica. Neither was of much importance: the French, inferior in number, retreated; but their commander at Lisbon was Junot, an officer trained in the school of revolutionary enterprise, and disposed, like most of his brethren at that time, to make light of British land forces. He determined forthwith on assuming offensive operations, advanced from Lisbon, and reaching the British army on the 21st of August 1808, attacked it in its position at the small town of Vimiero. The force on either side was about fourteen thousand men. The French marched to the onset in columns, with their wonted confidence; but they had to encounter an enemy equally firm with Germans or Russians, and far superior in discipline, equipment, and activity. The principal column of the enemy, headed by General Laborde, and preceded by a multitude of light troops, mounted the face of the hill forming the crest of the British position, with great fury and loud cries, and, forcing in our skirmishers upon the lines, crowned the summit; but, shattered by a terrible fire of the artillery, breathless from their exertions, and riddled by a discharge of musketry from the fifteenth regiment at half-pistol shot distance, they were vigorously charged in front and flank, and overthrown.² Equal success attended our efforts in

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¹ Stewart's *Sketches and Military Service of the Highland Regiments*, vol. ii. p. 265 et seqq. 2d edition.

² Napier's *History of the Peninsular War*, vol. i. p. 215.

other parts of the line, and the loss of the enemy was three thousand men and thirteen pieces of cannon. The object now ought to have been to follow up our success, before the French had time to recover themselves, and fortify the almost impenetrable mountains on the road to Lisbon. In vain did Sir Arthur Wellesley urge this, first on Sir Harry Burrard, who had now taken the command, and next day on Sir Hew Dalrymple, who arrived and replaced him. Reinforcements were daily expected; and, till their arrival, neither of these officers could be persuaded to incur hazards for the attainment of an advantage which, from their unacquaintance with localities, they were not competent to appreciate. A precious interval was thus lost. The French occupied the passes, opened their negotiation in a tone of confidence, and obtained, by the treaty called the Convention of Cintra, a free return to France on board of British shipping. The ministry, though disappointed, determined to defend this convention; judging it indispensable, partly from the communications of Sir Hew Dalrymple, more from its bearing the unqualified signature of Sir Arthur Wellesley, who was, even then, their confidential military adviser. The public, however, called for inquiry; ministers felt the necessity of acceding; the three generals were ordered home from Portugal; and, after a long investigation, and divided opinions, the chief error was found to consist in stopping General Ferguson in the career of victory, when about to cut off the enemy's retreat to Lisbon, and in the loss of the twenty-four hours which followed the battle of Vimiero.

The public disappointment at the convention of Cintra was soon counterbalanced by gratifying intelligence from the Baltic. Bonaparte, whose plan was to subjugate all Europe, by making one nation instrumental in overawing another, had sent the Spanish regiments in his service into Denmark; but he could not prevent their receiving intelligence of the rising spirit of their countrymen, and the vicinity of a British fleet happily facilitated their evasion. Ten thousand Spaniards were thus brought off, and carried, with their arms, stores, and artillery, to join the standard of their country.

Meantime the command of our troops in Portugal was vested in Sir John Moore, and arrangements were made for moving them forward into Spain. But from the badness of the roads, it was necessary to advance in two divisions, one marching due east, and another north-east; while a further force, which had arrived from England at Corunna, was instructed to hold a south-east course. The lateral divisions received, in their progress, orders to adapt the direction of their march to existing circumstances; but the result was, that both converged towards the central division, conducted by Sir John Moore in person.

In their march our officers had an ample opportunity of witnessing the fallacious and exaggerated impressions entertained in England with regard to the supposed enthusiasm of the Spaniards. They saw a country wretchedly cultivated and thinly peopled; a nation hostilely disposed, indeed, to the French, but unaccustomed to exertion, and incapable of combination. Instead of recruits, supplies of provisions, or offers of voluntary service, all was inactivity and stagnation; and, amidst the general poverty, our commissariat had great difficulty in obtaining provisions. Another great source of perplexity was the want of information. The natives, whether in the civil or military service, were too ignorant and credulous to be capable of detecting exaggeration, or of distinguishing truth from falsehood; and our officers were obliged to judge for themselves under the most contradictory rumours.

Sir John Moore reached Salamanca on the 13th of November, aware that the Spaniards had been defeated at Burgos, and soon after apprised that a French corps was advancing

to Valladolid, within sixty miles of his front. In this situation he received from Madrid the most urgent solicitations to advance thither with his army, either in whole or in part. He knew the ardour of his country for the cause of Spain, and directed his movements in the view of complying, as far as should be at all advisable, with the representations pressed on him; but day after day the intelligence became more discouraging. At last, the fall of Madrid, ascertained by an intercepted letter of General Berthier, removed every doubt, and left him no other plan but that of uniting his three divisions, and determining on a retreat; but, as his army was now augmented to twenty-five thousand men, he determined, if possible, to strike a blow against the detached French army under Soult, stationed at some distance to the north-east. With this view, our troops advanced on the 11th of December towards the small town of Sahagun, and a partial action, which took place between the opposite vanguards, was to our advantage; but intelligence arriving that Bonaparte was directing, by the passes of the Guadarama, a superior force on a point in rear of the British, it became indispensable to make a prompt and uninterrupted retreat. Bonaparte, pressing forward with his vanguard, reached our rear at Benavente, saw, for the first time, British soldiers, and witnessed a cavalry action, in which several squadrons of his guard were very roughly handled, and their commanding officer, Lefebvre Desnouettes, made prisoner. Meanwhile, Soult, marching by a different road, hoped to cross our line of retreat at Astorga; and the Spaniards having abandoned the position which covered the access to that town, it required both prompt and skilful exertion to enable our army to occupy it before the enemy. Here, pressed as we were, it became necessary to destroy a great part of our camp equipage. Our army was ahead of the enemy, but had before it a long and difficult march over the mountains of Galicia. The weather was severe, provisions scanty, the inhabitants cold and unfriendly; while privations and disappointment relaxed the discipline of our soldiers, who called loudly to be led to action, as the close of their distress. Retreat, however, was unavoidable; and, in this state of suffering and insubordination, the army performed a march of more than two hundred miles; the general keeping in the rear to check the French, who followed with their usual audacity. At Lago, about sixty miles from Corunna, circumstances seemed to justify our awaiting the enemy, and fighting a general battle. Our soldiers repaid with alacrity to their ranks, but Soult did not accept the challenge, and the retreat was continued. It closed on the 12th January 1809, having been attended with the loss of many men, from disorder, and the sacrifice of many horses, from want of forage, but without losing a standard, or sustaining a single check in action. On the 13th, 14th, and 15th, the sick and artillery were embarked on board our men of war; while the troops remained on shore, to await the enemy, and to cover the reproach of retreat by some shining exploit. This led to the battle of Corunna. On that day our position was good on the left, but very much otherwise on the right; thither, accordingly, the French pointed their strongest column, and thither also Sir John Moore repaired in person. He directed the necessary movements, first to obstruct, and afterwards to charge, the advancing enemy. These orders were gallantly executed, and the attack of the French repelled; but our lamented general received a wound, which soon after proved mortal, from a cannon ball, that struck him on the shoulder, and knocked him off his horse. Subsequent attacks, first on our centre, and next on our left, were equally foiled; and, in the evening, we occupied an advanced position along our whole line. Enough having now been done for the honour of our arms, the embarkation was continued on the 17th, and

completed on the 18th, after which the whole set sail for
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The session of 1808 was opened on 31st January by a speech of uncommon length, which enlarged on the Copenhagen expedition; our relations with Russia, Austria, and Sweden; the departure of the royal family of Portugal to Brazil; and our orders in council respecting neutrals. The chief debates of the session related to these subjects. The Copenhagen expedition was much canvassed, as unprovoked by Denmark, and incompatible with the honour of England. Still that measure received the support of a great majority, Mr Ponsonby's motion for the production of papers relating to it being negatived by two hundred and fifty to a hundred and eight, and a similar motion in the House of Lords by a hundred and five to forty-eight. Even a motion for preserving the Danish fleet, to be restored, after the war, to Denmark, was negatived in both houses.

The volunteer system had, since 1804, been greatly relaxed, and the country evidently stood in need of a more constant and efficient force. The Grenville ministry, adverse to the volunteer system, had determined to let it fall into disuse, and to replace it by a levy of two hundred thousand men, to be trained to act, not in battalions, but separately, and as irregulars, on the principle that local knowledge was the chief recommendation, and a continuance of previous habits the proper exercise, of such a force. The new ministry, however, pursued a different course, and passed an act for a local militia; a body which, with the exception of the officers, was composed of the lower orders, pledged to regular training during one month in the year, and subjected to all the strictness of military discipline. Such of the volunteers as chose were to remain embodied; the total of the local militia was about two hundred thousand, and the mode of levy was by a ballot of all persons, not specially exempted, between the age of eighteen and thirty-one.

The orders in council were frequently discussed during this session, but they were as yet imperfectly understood either in their immediate operation or in their consequences. Unfortunately for the advocates of moderation, Bonaparte now lost all regard to justice, and committed the most lawless of all his acts, the seizure of the Spanish crown. Indignation at this atrocity, and a firm determination to support the Spanish cause, were manifested by men of all parties, among whom were remarkable, as habitual members of opposition, the Duke of Norfolk and Mr Sheridan; the latter making, on this occasion, one of the most brilliant speeches of his latter years.

The session of 1809 was opened on 13th January by a speech declaring a decided determination to adhere to the cause of the Spaniards, notwithstanding the failure of the

campaign, and the retreat of our army under Sir John Moore. The intelligence that arrived soon after the death of that commander drew from the house a unanimous eulogy of his character, and regret for his fall. There still prevailed, both in parliament and the public, a strong attachment to the Spanish cause; and, in the various motions made by the opposition to censure ministers for mismanaging our armaments, or ill planning our operations, the minority seldom exceeded a third of the members present.

But the attention of parliament and the public was withdrawn even from this interesting question, and absorbed by the charges against the Duke of York, brought forward by Colonel Wardle, on evidence given or procured by Mrs Mary Anne Clarke, a forsaken mistress of the duke. Ministers, unaware of the extent of the proofs, brought the inquiry before the house instead of referring it to a committee, and a succession of singular disclosures were thus made to parliament and the public. Of these the most remarkable were produced by the friends of the duke persisting in examinations begun under an impression of his entire innocence. It is hardly possible to describe how much this subject engaged the public attention during the months of February and March. Of the influence of Mrs Clarke in obtaining military commissions from the duke, and of her disposing of them for money, there could be no doubt. The question was, whether the duke was apprised of this traffic; and though he might not be aware of its extent, there seems hardly room to doubt that, in certain cases, he suspected its existence. The debate on the collective evidence was uncommonly long, being adjourned from night to night, and exhibited a great difference of opinion on the part of the speakers. Several resolutions, varying in their degree of reprehension, were proposed; and though those finally adopted condemned only the immorality of the connection formed by the duke, without asserting his knowledge of the pecuniary abuses, the result was his resignation of the office of commander-in-chief.

The success of this investigation prompted an inquiry into other abuses, particularly the sale of East India appointments, and disclosed a negotiation of Lord Castlereagh to barter a nomination to a Bengal writership, for the return of a member to parliament. The house declined to proceed to any resolution against his lordship, or to entertain a motion relative to the interference of the executive government in elections. A bill for parliamentary reform, brought in by Mr Curwen, was not directly opposed, but so materially altered in its progress as to be nugatory when it passed into a law. The further business of the session consisted in the annual votes for the public service, and in motions by Sir Samuel Romilly, on a sub-

¹ The following masterly defence of the necessity as well as the conduct of this celebrated retreat, is extracted from Napier's *History of the Peninsular War*, vol. i. p. 525.

² Lord Bacon observes, that 'honourable retreats are no ways inferior to brave charges, as having less of fortune, more of discipline, and as much of valour.' That is an honourable retreat in which the retiring general loses no trophies in flight, sustains every charge without being broken, and finally, after a severe action, re-embarks his army in the face of a superior enemy without being seriously molested. It would be honourable to effect this before a foe only formidable from numbers, but it is infinitely more creditable, when the commander, while struggling with bad weather and worse fortune, has to oppose veterans with inexperienced troops, and to contend against an antagonist of eminent ability, who scarcely suffers a single advantage to escape him during his long and vigorous pursuit. All this Sir John Moore did, and finished his work by a death as firm and glorious as any that antiquity can boast of.

³ Put to Lord Bacon's test, in what shall the retreat to Corunna be found deficient? something in discipline, perhaps, but that fault does not attach to the general. Those commanders who have been celebrated for making fine retreats were in most instances well acquainted with their armies; and Hannibal, speaking of the elder Scipio, derided him, although a brave and skilful man, for that, being unknown to his own soldiers, he should presume to oppose himself to a general who could call to each man under his command by name; thus insinuating, that unless troops be trained in the peculiar method of a commander, the latter can scarcely achieve any thing great. Now Sir John Moore had a young army suddenly placed under his guidance, and it was scarcely united, when the superior numbers of the enemy forced it to a retrograde movement under very harassing circumstances; he had not time, therefore, to establish a system of discipline; and it is in the leading events, not the minor details, that the just criterion of his merits is to be sought for."

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ject which has been but lately followed up with effect, the amendment of our criminal law, by lessening the severity, but insuring the application, of punishments.

The failure, in autumn, of the expedition to the Scheldt, and the resignation of the Duke of Portland when on the verge of the grave, led to the disclosure of a remarkable secret in cabinet history—the attempts made, during several months, by Mr Canning, to obtain from the Duke of Portland the removal of Lord Castlereagh from the war department, on the ground of incompetency to the station. On making this mortifying discovery, the complaint of Lord Castlereagh was, not that his brother minister should think with slight of his abilities, but that, during all the time that he laboured against him, he should have maintained towards him the outward manner of a friend. This led to a duel, followed, not by serious personal injury, but by the resignation of both; causing, in the ministry, a blank which, to all appearance, could be filled only by bringing in the leaders of opposition. An overture to this effect, whether sincere or ostensible, was made by Mr Perceval. Lord Grenville, on receiving it, came to London; Lord Grey, more indifferent about office, answered it from his seat in Northumberland; but both declared a determination to decline taking part in the administration so long as the existing system should be persisted in. Marquis Wellesley, who had gone as ambassador to the Spanish junta, now returned, and was invested with the secretaryship for foreign affairs. Mr Perceval was appointed premier; and the new ministry, feeble as they were in talent, received the support of a decided majority in parliament; so general was the hatred of Bonaparte, and the conviction that our safety lay in a vigorous prosecution of the war.

Our failure in the campaign of 1808-9 was far from discouraging our government from new efforts. Austria was preparing to attack the allies of Bonaparte in Germany; and the Spaniards, though repeatedly beaten in close action, continued a destructive warfare in the shape of insulated insurrections. Sir Arthur Wellesley was accordingly sent with a fresh army to Lisbon, and General Beresford with a commission to discipline the Portuguese forces. They found the French threatening Lisbon in two directions: from the east, with a powerful force under Victor; from the north, with a less numerous body under Soult. Sir Arthur Wellesley advanced against the latter, drew near his rear guard on the banks of the Douro, drove it over that river, and crossing immediately after, forced Soult to a precipitate retreat from Oporto. Returning to the southward, our commander obliged the force under Victor to draw back; and having, some time after, effected a junction with a Spanish army, took the bold determination of moving forward in the direction of Madrid by the valley of the Tagus. The French now sent reinforcements to the army of Victor, and the opposing forces met at Talavera de la Reyna, a town to the north of the Tagus, near the small river Albarche. The British force was nineteen thousand, and that of the Spaniards above thirty thousand; the French army amounted to upwards of forty-seven thousand men. Lord Wellington was too distrustful of the discipline of his allies to venture an attack on the French, but he saw no imprudence in trying, as at Vimiero, the chance of a defensive action. Stationing the Spaniards on strong ground on the right, he occupied with the British a less strong but yet favourable position on the left. Against the army thus posted the French advanced in the afternoon of 27th July, driving in our advanced post, and attacking an eminence on our left. This eminence, the key of the position, would have been assailed from the beginning by Bonaparte, with a formidable column; but the rifle corps and a single battalion sent against it by Victor were speedily

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driven back by our troops. A second attack, made in the evening by three regiments of infantry, was at first successful, but it was soon repelled by a fresh division of British troops. The main body of the French, surprised at this failure, waited impatiently for morning to renew the attack; they advanced, marched through a destructive fire to the top of the rising ground, approached our cannon, and were on the point of seizing them, when our line rushed forward with the bayonet, and drove them back with great loss. Their commanders now determined to suspend all attacks on the right of the position, and to bring a mass of force against the front and flank of the British left. A general attack took place at four in the afternoon, and the troops directed against the height now consisted of three divisions of infantry, or about eighteen thousand men. Crossing the ravine in their front, the first division scaled the height amidst volleys of grape-shot; but its general fell, a number of officers shared his fate, and retreat became unavoidable. No attempt was now made to carry the eminence in front: attacks were made on its left and right, but all were ineffectual. The left, indeed, was the weak part of the British position; but so event, unfortunate in its immediate results, served to check their audacity in this quarter, and to prevent the renewal of any serious attempt against this part of our line. Sir Arthur Wellesley having observed a French division (Villatte's), preceded by grenadiers, and supported by two regiments of light cavalry, advancing up the valley against the left, while another (Ruffin's) was directing its march towards a mountain which flanked the left transversely, in order to turn it, directed Anson's brigade of cavalry, consisting of the twenty-third light dragoons and the first German hussars, to charge the head of these columns. The order was instantly obeyed; the brigade moved off at a canter, and increasing its speed as it advanced, rode headlong against the enemy; but in a few moments it came upon the brink of a cleft which was not perceptible at a distance. The French threw themselves into squares, and opened their fire. Colonel Arentschild, commanding the German hussars, promptly reigned up, exclaiming, "I will not kill my young men;" and it would have been well if the twenty-third had followed the example of the experienced veteran. But English impetuosity was not to be restrained. The twenty-third rode wildly down into the hollow; men and horses fell over each other in dreadful confusion; yet the survivors, still untamed, mounted the opposite banks by twos and threes; and Major Ponsonby rallying all who came up, they passed through the midst of Villatte's columns, reckless of the musketry from each side, and fell with inexpressible violence upon a brigade of French chasseur in the rear. The combat was fierce but short. Attacked by Victor's Polish lancers and the Westphalian light horse, exposed on both sides to the fire of the squares of infantry, and engaged with the chassateurs in front, they were at length broken; and those who were not killed or taken escaped behind a Spanish division, leaving behind about half the number which went into action. But, however unfortunate in its circumstances, the desperate fury of this charge appalled the French, and effectually checked their advance on a point where the chances of success were otherwise much in their favour. This battle, which was one of hard, honest fighting, reflected little credit on the generalship of either party. The loss on both sides was unusually severe; that sustained by the British, in the two days' fighting, amounting to upwards of six thousand in killed and wounded, and that of the French to about seven thousand four hundred.

Notwithstanding this dear-bought success, it became necessary for the allied army to retire; the French divi-

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sions in the north-west of Spain having united and begun to march in a direction which would soon have brought them on our rear. Our army crossed the Tagus at Arzobispo, and held a south-west course till it reached Badajoz, where it remained during the rest of the year, in a position which covered that fortress, and showed the Spaniards that we had not abandoned their cause, however dissatisfied with their co-operation, and convinced of the impracticability of combining offensive operations with such allies.

While by land the fortune of war was thus chequered, at sea the French experienced nothing but disasters. Eight ships of the line in Brest, eluding our blockade, sailed southward to Basque Roads, near Bordeaux, where they were joined by four sail of the line from that port. Our fleet blockaded them in their new stations; and preparation having been made to attempt their destruction by fire-ships, Lord Cochrane sailed in with these dreadful engines on the evening of the 11th of April 1809. Our seamen broke the boom in front of the French line, disregarded the fire from the forts, and, after bringing the fire-ships as near to the enemy as possible, set fire to the fuses and withdrew in their barks. The French, surprised and alarmed, cut their cables and run on shore. Four sail of the line that had accompanied Lord Cochrane attacked them, and though the main body of our fleet was prevented by the wind and tide from coming up, the result of our attack, and of the effect of the fire-ships, was the loss of four sail of the line, and one frigate burned or destroyed. At a later period of the year a French convoy of three sail of the line and eleven transports, proceeding from Toulon to Barcelona, was attacked and destroyed by a division from Lord Collingwood's fleet.

Doubtful as was the aspect of the great contest in Spain, it employed a large portion of Bonaparte's military establishment, and revived the hope of independence in Germany. Prussia was too recently humbled, and too closely connected with Russia, at that time the ally of France, to take up arms; but Austria was unrestrained, and thought the season favourable for a renewal of the contest. Her troops took the field in April, and invaded Bavaria under the Archduke Charles, but were worsted at Eckmühl, after a series of the most splendid military combinations, and Vienna was a second time entered by Bonaparte. His impatience to attack the Austrian army on the north side of the Danube led to his failure in the sanguinary battle of Aspern, and necessitated the advance of almost all his regular troops into the heart of Germany, at a distance of several hundred miles from the coast. But the battle of Wagram at length decided the fate of the campaign, and placed Austria again at the feet of France.

Of the naval stations exposed in consequence of the withdrawal of the troops, by far the most important was Antwerp, situated on a part of the Scheldt of as great depth and as accessible to ships of the line as the Thames at Woolwich. From Antwerp to the mouth of the Scheldt is a distance of about fifty miles. The first fortified town, on coming in from the sea, is Flushing, the batteries of which, though formidable, are not capable of preventing the passage of ships of war through a strait of three miles in width. Our armament, consisting of nearly forty sail of the line and thirty-eight thousand military, was the most powerful that had ever left our shores. It crossed the narrow sea with a fair wind; and, in the morning of the 30th of July, the inhabitants of the tranquil coast of Zealand were astonished by an unparalleled display of men of war and transports. Our troops landed and forthwith occupied Walcheren and the islands to the north. No resistance was offered except at Flushing; but our commander, the Earl of Chatham, showed himself wholly in-

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capable of discriminating the causes of success or failure when he stopped to besiege that place. It ought only to have been watched, whilst the main body of the troops should have landed in Dutch Flanders, on the south of the Scheldt, and marched straight to Antwerp, which, even with artillery, might have been reached in a few days. The French, never doubting the adoption of this plan, and conscious of their weakness, had moved their men of war up the river, beyond the town, previous to setting them on fire. But a delay of a fortnight took place before Flushing, and time was thus given to the enemy to strengthen the forts on the river, and to collect whatever force the country afforded. Still, as an attack by water was not indispensable to success, there yet remained a chance; ten days more, however, were lost, the relinquishment of the main object of the expedition became thus unavoidable; and the only further measure was to leave a body of fifteen thousand men in the island of Walcheren. There, accordingly, they remained during several months, suffering greatly from an unhealthy atmosphere, and doing nothing except destroying, on their departure, the dock-yards of Flushing. Never was a gallant force more grossly misdirected; the choice of our general was as unaccountable as the choice of Mack in 1805; and the historian, were he to reason from the inferior numbers of the enemy, might pronounce this expedition as inglorious to our arms as the battles of Poitiers and Agincourt were to our enemies of a former age.

The session of 1810 opened on the 28th of January, and the leading subject of debate was our unfortunate expedition to Walcheren and the Scheldt. A motion tending to inquiry was carried after a close division, namely, a hundred and ninety-five to a hundred and eighty-six; and the investigation was conducted chiefly at the bar of the House of Commons, a secret committee being appointed for the inspection of confidential papers. The Earl of Chatham, and other officers concerned in planning or conducting the expedition, were examined. The inquiry lasted several weeks, and disclosed, clearly enough, the imbecility of our commander; but the speculies of the opposition were pointed, not against the management of the expedition, but against its expediency as an enterprise; not against the general, but the cabinet. In this they were not seconded by the majority of the house. On the policy or impolicy of the expedition being put to the vote, the former was supported by two hundred and seventy-two in opposition to two hundred and thirty-two; and even the less tenable ground of keeping our soldiers in an unhealthy island for three months after relinquishing all idea of an attempt on Antwerp, was vindicated by two hundred and fifty-three votes against two hundred and thirty-two; a decision too remarkable to be forgotten, and which has since stamped this with the name of the Walcheren Parliament. The only ministerial change consequent on the inquiry was the removal of Lord Chatham from his seat in the cabinet, and from the master-generalship of the ordinance; but this was in consequence of privately delivering a statement to the king, professing to vindicate himself at the expense of Sir Richard Strachan and the navy. The resolution adopted on this occasion was, "that the house saw with regret that any such communication as the narrative of Lord Chatham should have been made to his majesty, without any knowledge of the other ministers; that such conduct is highly reprehensible, and deserves the censure of the house."

The exclusion of strangers from the gallery of the house during the Walcheren inquiry gave rise to a discussion which, though at first unimportant, soon engaged much of the public attention. A Mr John Gale Jones, well known among the demagogues of the age, and at that

Reign of George III. time president of a debating club, animated on the House of Commons in a handbill, in a style which induced the house to order his commitment to Newgate. A few weeks after, Sir Francis Burdett brought in a motion for his liberation, on the broad ground that the house had no right to inflict the punishment of imprisonment in such a case. Baffled in this way by a great majority, Sir Francis wrote and printed a letter by his constituents, denying this power, and applying contemptuous epithets to the houses. This imprudent step provoked a debate, which ended in a resolution by the House of Commons to commit Sir Francis to the Tower. The speaker issued his warrant, and the sergeant at arms carried it to the house of Sir Francis, but withdrew on a refusal of Sir Francis to obey. Next day the sergeant repeated his demand, accompanied by messengers; but the populace had by this time assembled in crowds near the baronet's house, and prevented his removal until an early hour on the 9th, when the civil officers burst into his house, put Sir Francis into a carriage, and conveyed him to the Tower in the midst of several regiments of horse. Sir Francis brought actions against the speaker and other officers; but they fell to the ground by non-suits, and he continued in confinement during the remainder of the session.

Among the further acts of this session were two which regarded Scotland; one for the increase of the smaller church livings, of which none in this part of the kingdom are now under L.150; the other relative to judicial proceedings, and reducing the heavy expenses caused by the compulsory extract of office papers. The court of session had been previously divided into chambers by an act passed in 1808; and the trial by jury in civil causes was introduced into Scotland by an act of 1813.

We turn with impatience from the banks of the Scheldt to a scene more honourable to our arms. Our troops under Sir Arthur Wellesley, now Lord Wellington, had passed the winter in the interior of Portugal, moving northward as spring advanced, but delaying active operations. Offensive war was unavailing to our situation, and the French awaited reinforcements from the north. Bonaparte's determination now was to make Massena penetrate into Portugal, and to expel those auxiliaries who were the main-spring of the obstinate resistance experienced by him in Spain. The first enterprise of the French army was the siege of the frontier fortress of Ciudad Rodrigo, which surrendered on the 10th of July. The next object of attack was the Portuguese fortress of Almeida, which was invested in the end of July, and taken unfortunately too soon, in consequence of the explosion of the magazine. Soon after, the French army, now a formidable body, advanced into Portugal, Lord Wellington retiring before them, but determined to embrace the first opportunity of fighting on favourable ground. This occurred when occupying the highest ridge of the mountain of Busaco, directly in face of the enemy. The French, always impetuous, and not yet aware of the firmness of our men, marched up the mountain; one division reached the top of the ridge, where they were immediately attacked by a corps of British and Portuguese, and driven from the ground. In other parts the same result took place before the French reached the top. The loss on our side was a thousand men, that of the enemy between two and three thousand. Massena desisted from further attacks; but turning the flank of our position by a mountain, Lord Wellington, instead of heading the enemy's columns as they debouched from the defile, retreated in the direction of Lisbon, till he reached the ground which he had previously determined to occupy at Torres Vedras, in order to cover that capital.

The track of country to the north of Lisbon is not
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Reign of George III. above twelve miles in breadth, having the sea on the west and the Tagus on the east; the ground is extremely mountainous, and accessible only by passes, which were occupied by our troops and by batteries. Massena felt all the strength of this position, and the repulse at Busaco made him beware of a second encounter on disadvantageous ground. It was now for the first time that the impetuous bands of Bonaparte stopped short in their career; the armies remained opposite to each other above four months, during which time the French were greatly straitened for provisions and forage, being obliged to get convoys of biscuit under escort from France, whilst the command of the sea secured abundance to the British. Still Massena persisted in keeping his position, hoping to combine his operations with the army of Soult, then advancing from the south-east of Spain; an army which was but too fortunate, having attacked and taken by surprise a Spanish camp on the banks of the Guadiana. A number of boats had been constructed by Massena to cross the Tagus and co-operate with Soult; but in the beginning of March intelligence arrived that a convoy of biscuit long expected from France had been intercepted by the Guerrillas. There was now an end to all offensive projects, and there remained only the alternative of retreat. It began on the 5th of March; the British followed; and the movements of either army, during a very long march, afforded an admirable exemplification of the rules of war. Our advance was so rapid that the French were frequently obliged to move hastily from one position to another; but they kept their best troops in the rear, collected in solid bodies, and affording no opening to our vanguard. The retreat lasted a month, and closed near the fortress of Almeida, on the frontier of Spain. The French, however, were soon again in a condition to act, and advanced to relieve Almeida, of which we had now begun the siege. The chief fighting took place on the 3d and 5th of May, near a village called Fuentes de Honor, which was repeatedly taken and retaken; but all their efforts were ultimately ineffectual, and Almeida was left to its fate. The chief part of the garrison, however, found means to escape by a nocturnal march.

Meanwhile the south or rather the south-west of Spain was the scene of very active operations. A body of Spaniards and British, marching northward from Gibraltar, approached the south-western extremity of the line occupied by the French troops engaged in the blockade of Cadiz. General Graham commanded the British, and on 5th March, at noon, was drawing near to the close of a long march, when he received intelligence of the advance of a French force. Knowing the height of Barrosa, which he had just left, to be the key of the position, he immediately counter-marched his corps, and had proceeded but a short way when he found himself unexpectedly near to the enemy, whose left division was seen ascending the hill of Barrosa, while their right stood on the plain within cannon-shot. To retreat was wholly undrivable; an immediate attack was therefore determined on by General Graham, though unsupported by the Spaniards, and inferior to the enemy. A battery opened against the right division of the French caused them considerable loss, but they continued to advance until a charge with the bayonet drove them back with great slaughter. With the other division on the ascent of the hill there took place a similar conflict with a similar issue; both sides fought with courage, and both sustained a heavy loss; that of the British was above twelve hundred, and that of the enemy nearly double. The action lasted an hour and a half; our success was owing partly to the effect of our guns, but more to the firmness of the troops, who showed themselves determined rather to fall than yield.

About the same time, but at a distance of two hundred miles to the north of Cadiz, the important fortress of Ba-

Regency. dajos fell into the hands of the French. This painful intelligence reached Lord Wellington when following up the retreat of Massena; and so time was lost in detaching a body of troops to the south of Portugal, to enable Marshal Beresford to advance and form the siege of Badajos. This called from the south the army of Soult, twenty-three thousand strong. On their approach Marshal Beresford raised the siege of Badajos, and prepared to meet the enemy with a force numerically superior, but of which only seven thousand consisted of British troops. Soult quitted Seville on the 10th May 1811, but Beresford remained in a state of uncertainty till the 12th, when he commenced raising the siege. On the 13th he held a conference with the Spanish at Valverde, where it was agreed to receive battle at the village of Albuera. The 14th was spent in a variety of movements; and in the morning of the 15th the British occupied the left of the position of Albuera, a ridge about four miles long, having the Aroya Val de Sevilla in rear, and the Albuera river in front. This position was now occupied by thirty thousand infantry, above two thousand cavalry, and thirty-eight pieces of artillery, eighteen of which were nine-pounders; but a brigade of the fourth division being sent about, the British infantry, "the pith and strength of the battle," did not amount to seven thousand. The French had fifty guns and above four thousand veteran cavalry, but only nineteen thousand chosen infantry; yet being of one nation, obedient to one discipline, and animated by one spirit, the excellence of their composition amply compensated for the inferiority of numbers. Soult examined Beresford's position on the evening of the 15th, and having learnt that the fourth division was left before Badajos, and that the corps of Spaniards under Blake would not arrive before the 17th, he resolved to attack the next morning. We shall now adorn our pages with the incomparable description of this conflict, given by the great historian of the peninsular war.

"The hill in the centre, commanding the Valverde road, was undoubtedly the key of the position if an attack was made parallel to the front; but the heights on the right presented a sort of table-land, trending backwards towards the Valverde road, and looking into the rear of the line of battle. Hence it was evident that, if a mass of troops could be placed there, they must be beaten, or the right wing of the allied army would be rolled up on the centre and pushed into the narrow ravine of the Aroya; the Valverde road could then be seized, the retreat cut, and the powerful cavalry of the French would complete the victory. Now the right of the allies and the left of the French approximated to each other, being only divided by a wooded hill, about cannon-shot distance from either, but separated from the allies by the Albuera, and from the French by a rivulet called the Feria. This height, neglected by Beresford, was ably made use of by Soult. During the night he placed behind it the artillery under General Rutly, the fifth corps under Girard, and the heavy dragons under Latour Maubourg; thus concentrating fifteen thousand men and forty guns within ten minutes' march of Beresford's right wing, and yet that general could neither see a man nor draw a sound conclusion as to the real plan of attack.

"The light cavalry, the division of the first corps under General Werlé, Godinot's brigade, and ten guns, still remained at the French marshal's disposal. These he formed in the woods extending along the banks of the Feria towards its confluence with the Albuera; and Godinot was ordered to attack the village and bridge, and to bear strongly against the centre of the position, with a view to attract Beresford's attention, to separate his wings, and to double up his right at the moment when the principal attack should be developed.

"During the night Blake and Cole arrived with above sixteen thousand men; but so defective was the occupation of the ground, that Soult had no change to make in his plans from this circumstance, and, a little before nine o'clock in the morning, Godinot's division issued from the woods in one heavy column of attack, preceded by ten guns. He was flanked by the light cavalry, and followed by Werlé's division of reserve, and, making straight towards the bridge, commenced a sharp cannonade, attempting to force the passage; at the same time Briché, with two regiments of hussars, drew further down the river to observe Colonel Otway's horse.

"The allies' guns on the rising ground above the village answered the fire of the French, and ploughed through their columns, which were crowding without judgment towards the bridge, although the stream was passable above and below. But Beresford, observing that Werlé's division did not follow closely, was soon convinced that the principal effort would be on the right, and therefore sent Blake orders to form a part of the first and all the second line of the Spanish army on the broad part of the hills, at right angles to their actual front. Then drawing the Portuguese infantry of the left wing to the centre, he sent one brigade down to support Allen, and directed General Hamilton to hold the remainder in columns of battalions, ready to move to any part of the field. The thirteenth dragons were posted near the edge of the river, above the bridge; and, meanwhile, the second division marched to support Blake. The horse artillery, the heavy dragons, and the fourth division, also took ground to the right, and were posted; the cavalry and guns on a small plain behind the Aroya, and the fourth division in an oblique line about half musket shot behind them. This done, Beresford galloped to Blake, for that general had refused to change his front, and, with great heat, told Colonel Hardinge, the bearer of the order, that the real attack was at the village and bridge. Beresford had sent again to entreat that he would obey, but this message was as fruitless as the former; and, when the marshal arrived, nothing had been done. The enemy's columns were, however, now beginning to appear on the right, and Blake, yielding to this evidence, proceeded to make the evolution, yet with such pedantic slowness, that Beresford, impatient of his folly, took the direction in person.

"Great was the confusion and the delay thus occasioned, and ere the troops could be put in order the French were amongst them. For scarcely had Godinot engaged Allen's brigade, when Werlé, leaving only a battalion of grenadiers and some squadrons to watch the thirteenth dragons and to connect the attacks, countermarched with the remainder of his division, and rapidly gained the rear of the fifth corps as it was mounting the hills on the right of the allies. At the same time the mass of light cavalry suddenly quitted Godinot's column, and crossing the river Albuera above the bridge, ascended the left bank at a gallop, and, sweeping round the rear of the fifth corps, joined Latour Maubourg, who was already in face of Lumley's squadrons. Thus half an hour had sufficed to render Beresford's position nearly desperate. Two thirds of the French were in a compact order of battle on a line perpendicular to his right, and his army, disordered and composed of different nations, was still in the difficult act of changing its front. It was in vain that he endeavoured to form the Spanish line sufficiently in advance to give room for the second division to support it; the French guns opened, their infantry threw out a heavy musketry, and their cavalry, outflanking the front and charging here and there, put the Spaniards in disorder at all points; in a short time the latter gave way, and Soult, thinking the whole army was yielding, pushed forward his columns,

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"At this critical moment General William Stewart arrived at the foot of the height with Colonel Colborne's brigade, which formed the head of the second division. The colonel, seeing the confusion above, desired to form in order of battle previous to mounting the ascent; but Stewart, whose boiling courage overleaid his judgment, led up without any delay in column of companies, and attempted to open out his line in succession as the battalions arrived at the summit. Being under a destructive fire, the foremost charged to gain room; but a heavy rain prevented any object from being distinctly seen, and four regiments of hussars and lancers, which had passed the right flank in the obscurity, came galloping in upon the rear of the line at the instant of its development, and slew or took two thirds of the brigade. One battalion only (the thirty-first) being still in column, escaped the storm and maintained its ground; while the French horsemen, riding violently over every thing else, penetrated to all parts. In the tumult a lancer fell upon Beresford, but the marshal, a man of great strength, putting his spear aside, cast him from his saddle; and a slight of wind blowing aside the mist and smoke, the mischief was perceived from the plains by General Lumley, who sent four squadrons out upon the lancers and cut many of them off.

"During this first unhappy effort of the second division, so great was the confusion, that the Spanish line continued to fire without cessation, although the British were before them; whereupon Beresford, finding his exhortations to advance fruitless, seized an ensign and bore him and his colours by main force to the front; yet the troops would not follow, and the man went back again on being released. In this crisis the weather, which had ruined Colborne's brigade, also prevented Soul from seeing the whole extent of the field of battle, and he still kept his heavy columns together. His cavalry, indeed, began to hem in that of the allies; but the fire of the horse artillery enabled Lumley, covered as he was by the bed of the Aroya, and supported by the fourth division, to check them on the plain, while Colborne still maintained the heights with the thirty-first regiment; the British artillery, under Major Dickson, was likewise coming fast into action, and William Stewart, who had escaped the charge of the lancers, was again mounting the hill with General Houghton's brigade, which he brought on with the same vehemence, but, instructed by his previous misfortune, in a juster order of battle. The weather now cleared, and a dreadful fire, poured into the thickest of the French columns, convinced Soul that the day was yet to be won.

"Houghton's regiments soon got footing on the summit, Dickson placed the artillery in line, the remaining brigade of the second division came up on the left, and two Spanish corps at last moved forward. The enemy's infantry then recoiled, yet soon recovering, renewed the fight with greater violence than before; the cannon on both sides discharged showers of grape at half range, and the peals of musketry were incessant and often within pistol shot; but the close formation of the French embarrassed their battle, and the British line would not yield them one inch of ground nor a moment of time to open their ranks. Their fighting was, however, fierce and dangerous. Stewart was twice hurt, Colonel Duckworth of the forty-eighth was slain, and the gallant Houghton, who had received many wounds without shrinking, fell and died in the act of cheering his men. Still the struggle continued with unabated fury. Colonel Inglis, twenty-two other officers, and more than four hundred men out of five hundred and seventy that had mounted the hill, fell in the fifty-seventh alone, and the other regiments were scarcely better off; not one

third were standing in any. Ammunition failed, and, as the English fire slackened, the enemy established a column in advance upon the right flank; the play of Dickson's artillery checked them a moment, but again the Polish lancers charging, captured six guns. And in this desperate crisis, Beresford, who had already withdrawn the thirteenth dragoons from the banks of the river, and brought Hamilton's Portuguese into a situation to cover a retrograde movement, watched destruction stare him in the face, his personal resources were exhausted, and the unhappy thought of a retreat rose in his agitated mind. Yet no order to that effect was given, and it was urged by some about him that the day might still be redeemed with the fourth division. While he hesitated, Colonel Hardinge boldly ordered General Cole to advance; and then riding to Colonel Abercrombie, who commanded the remaining brigade of the second division, directed him also to push forward into the fight. The die being thus cast, Beresford acquiesced, and this terrible battle was continued.

"The fourth division had only two brigades in the field; the one Portuguese under General Harvey; the other, commanded by Sir W. Myers, and composed of the seventh and twenty-third British regiments, was called the fusilier brigade. General Cole directed the Portuguese to move between Lumley's dragoons and the hill, where they were immediately charged by some of the French horsemen, but beat them off with great loss: meanwhile he led the fusiliers in person up the height.

"At this time six guns were in the enemy's possession, the whole of Werlé's reserves were coming forward to reinforce the front column of the French, and the remnant of Houghton's brigade could no longer maintain its ground; the field was heaped with carcasses, the lancers were riding furiously about the captured artillery on the upper part of the hill, and on the lower slopes a Spanish and an English regiment in mutual error were exchanging volleys; behind all, General Hamilton's Portuguese, in withdrawing from the heights above the bridge, appeared to be in retreat. The conduct of a few brave men soon changed this state of affairs. Colonel Robert Arbuthnot, pushing between the double fire of the mistaken troops, arrested that mischief; while Cole, with the fusiliers, flanked by a battalion of the Lusitanian legion under Colonel Hawkshawe, mounted the hill, dispersed the lancers, recovered the captured guns, and appeared on the right of Houghton's brigade exactly as Abercrombie passed it on the left.

"Such a gallant line, issuing from the midst of the smoke, and rapidly separating itself from the confused and broken multitude, startled the enemy's heavy masses, which were increasing and pressing onwards as to an assured victory; they wavered, hesitated, and then vomiting forth a storm of fire, hastily endeavoured to enlarge their front, while a fearful discharge of grape from all their artillery whistled through the British ranks. Myers was killed; Cole, and the three colonels, Ellis, Blakeney, and Hawkshawe, fell wounded; and the fusilier battalion, struck by the iron tempest, reeled and staggered like sinking ships. Suddenly and sternly recovering, they closed on their terrible enemies; and then was seen with what a strength and majesty the British soldier fights. In vain did Soul, by voice and gesture, animate his Frenchmen; in vain did the hardest veterans, extricating themselves from the crowded columns, sacrifice their lives to gain time for the mass to open out on such a fair field; in vain did the mass itself bear up, and fiercely striving, fire indiscriminately upon friends and foes, while the horsemen hovering on the flank threatened to charge the advancing line. Nothing could stop that astonishing infantry. No sudden burst of

Regency. undisciplined valour, no nervous enthusiasm, weakened the stability of their order; their flashing eyes were bent on the dark columns in their front; their measured tread shook the ground; their dreadful volleys swept away the head of every formation; their deafening shouts overpowered the dissonant cries that broke from all parts of the tumultuous crowd, as foot by foot and with a horrid by the language of the regent, who entered on his functions by declaring, that he continued ministers in office solely from a feeling of filial respect. Among the successive topics of discussion were the county meetings of the Catholics in Ireland, and the steps taken by government to repress them; an act to authorize government to send English militia into Ireland, and Irish militia into England; and finally, the re-appointment of the Duke of York to his office of commander-in-chief; a step which excited some surprise, but received the decided support of parliament, a motion made to censure it being negatived by two hundred and forty-nine to forty-seven. But the most anxious topics of parliamentary and public attention were the distress of trade and the state of our paper currency. Towards the relief of the former, an issue of exchequer bills was authorized under certain limitations; and to support the credit of the latter, a law was passed which, when joined to former enactments, had nearly the effect of making bank-notes a legal tender.

Lord Wellington reached the army some time after the battle of Albuera, and determined to renew the siege of Badajoz. Breaches were made in the walls, and two attempts at assault were hazarded (6th and 9th June), but in vain; the advance of the French army from the north, in concert with that of the south, necessitated the raising of the siege. Here ended the active operations of the year. Our army remained some time encamped in the central part of Portugal, after which Lord Wellington marched northward and threatened Ciudad Rodrigo, but retreated before a superior force collected by the French.

CHAP. XIX.

THE REGENCY.—WAR WITH FRANCE.

The Regency.—Campaign of 1812.—Battle of Salamanca.—Consequences of this victory.—Session of 1812.—Overtures to the Opposition.—Orders in Council.—Session of 1812-1813.—Princess of Wales.—East India Charter.—Campaign of 1813.—Operations in the east of Spain.—Failure of the attempt on Tarragona.—Operations in the West.—Battle of Vittoria.—Siege of San Sebastian.—Battles of the Pyrenees.—Invasion of France.—Battles of the Nive, Nivelle, Orthez, and Toulouse.—Session of 1813-1814.—General Pacification and Settlement of Europe.—Origin of our differences with the United States of America.—Suspension of Neutral Trade.—War declared 18th June 1812.—Naval Operations.—Operations in Canada.—American Campaign of 1813.—Affair at Sackett's Harbour.—Campaign of 1814.—Operations on the Lakes.—Operations in the central parts of the United States.—Attack on New Orleans.—Peace.—Illustrious effects of the war.—Session of 1814-1815.—Corn Laws.—Return of Bonaparte from Elba.—Effects of this extraordinary attempt.—Military Operations.—Campaign in the Netherlands.—Battle of Quatre Bras.—Battle of Ligny.—Battle of Waterloo, and Overthrow of Napoleon.—Advance of the Allies, and Second Treaty of Paris.—Reflections on the War.—Session of 1816.—Loss of the Property-Tax Bill.—Battle of Algiers.—Session of 1817.—Suspension of Habeas Corpus.

The session of 1810-11 opened in November 1810, more early than was usual, in consequence of the mental indisposition of the king. Repeated adjournments, however, took place in the vain hope of a recovery, and it was not till the 20th of December that resolutions for a regency were moved in both houses. They formed the chief subject of discussion during the ensuing month. Their principal characteristics consisted in the restrictions imposed on the prince for the succeeding year, during which he was not permitted to confer the rank of peer, to grant an office in reversion, or even a place or pension, except during the king's pleasure; whilst the management of the royal household was vested in the queen. Resolutions so obnoxious to the prince called forth a strong opposition; and a motion that the royal power should be conferred on

him without restriction was supported by two hundred against two hundred and twenty-four. But the divisions in favour of ministers became stronger after the question of the regency was settled, and great part of the session passed without any contest between government and the opposition, the latter considering the present arrangement as temporary; an opinion in which they were confirmed by the language of the regent, who entered on his functions by declaring, that he continued ministers in office solely from a feeling of filial respect. Among the successive topics of discussion were the county meetings of the Catholics in Ireland, and the steps taken by government to repress them; an act to authorize government to send English militia into Ireland, and Irish militia into England; and finally, the re-appointment of the Duke of York to his office of commander-in-chief; a step which excited some surprise, but received the decided support of parliament, a motion made to censure it being negatived by two hundred and forty-nine to forty-seven. But the most anxious topics of parliamentary and public attention were the distress of trade and the state of our paper currency. Towards the relief of the former, an issue of exchequer bills was authorized under certain limitations; and to support the credit of the latter, a law was passed which, when joined to former enactments, had nearly the effect of making bank-notes a legal tender.

The campaign of 1812 commenced very early, Lord Wellington investing Ciudad Rodrigo on the 8th of January. The siege was pressed with activity, and a breach being made, the town was carried by storm on the 19th of January, though with a great loss, particularly in officers, among whom was General Mackinnon. So prompt had been our operations, that the French army approaching to the relief of the place would not at first believe the news of its capture. Soon afterwards Lord Wellington turned his forces to the south, and invested Badajoz, already the scene of such obstinate contests. Here, also, the operations were pressed with great rapidity, that they might be brought to an issue before the arrival of the French army from Cadiz. On the night of the 6th April, Badajoz was attacked on several points by escalade; but we were repulsed in every direction except at the castle, which was fortunately carried; and as it commanded all the works, the consequence was the surrender of the town next day, after a siege which, short as it had been, cost us very nearly five thousand men. Secure on the south, Lord Wellington now marched towards the north, and detached Sir Rowland Hill to make a sudden attack on the French station at Almaraz, where the bridge over the Tagus served as the chief military communication between the northern and southern army. The expedition was successful, the entrenchments being stormed and destroyed. Lord Wellington now marched against the French army in the north, commanded by Marmont, and reached Salamanca on the 16th of June. The forts in that town being taken after some sharp fighting, the French retreated to the Douro; but being soon reinforced, resumed the offensive, and obliged our army to retreat in its turn. These movements continued several weeks, Lord Wellington being obliged to yield ground to his opponent, but ready to attack him on the commission of any material fault. Such an opportunity at last occurred on 22d July, near Salamanca, when the French, rendered confident by our continued retreat, extended their left, and presented an opening, which was instantly seized by their vigilant adversary. Columns were sent forward against the enemy's left and centre; the former succeeded completely, the latter met with much opposition. Great gallantry was shown, and heavy loss sustained on both sides. At last the French centre and right were both driven from the field. The darkness prevented our making prisoners, but a body of cavalry join-

ing in the night, the hostile rear-guard was attacked next morning, and obliged to surrender. Our loss was about three thousand British and two thousand Portuguese; that of the enemy in killed and wounded was at least equal, and we took between six and seven thousand prisoners. The British force in the field was twenty-two thousand.

The consequences of the victory of Salamanca were the pursuit of the French army; the occupation of Madrid on the 12th of August by the allies; the abandonment by the French of the works constructed at vast expense against Cadiz; the evacuation of Andalusia, Grenada, and all the south of Spain. But as this loss of territory was not attended by a loss of troops, it became incumbent on Lord Wellington to prepare against a vigorous attack from forces that were rapidly concentrating. He made repeated attempts to take the castle of Burgos, and the military stores collected there; but this fort, defended by a strong garrison and a vigilant commander, General Dubreton, baffled all our efforts, and proved the cause of a considerable sacrifice of lives. Meantime the approach of Soult from the south, and of the army that had fought at Salamanca from the east, obliged Lord Wellington to adopt the alternative of retreat. He began his march on the 20th of October, and proceeded westward, in a line nearly parallel to the Douro, taking above three weeks to recross the country to the scene of his victory at Salamanca. There, united with General Hill, and at the head of fifty thousand men, he remained on ground lately so propitious, hoping that an opportunity might offer to attack the enemy, though now increased, by the junction of their two armies, to the number of seventy thousand. But Soult's positions were found too strong for attack, and the interval afforded him by Lord Wellington was diligently employed in pushing forward detachments to cut off our communications with Portugal. Retreat now became indispensable; and here, amidst hasty marches, and a scarcity of five days, there occurred scenes of insubordination which recalled all the disorders of our march to Corunna, and drew from Lord Wellington a most severe censure in general orders. Fortunately, similar privations on the side of the French prevented them from making many prisoners, and, on 20th November, on the frontier of Portugal, was closed this eventful campaign.

The session opened on the 7th of January, and the early discussions related to arrangements for the royal household, and to a motion by Mr Brougham to exclude the droits of admiralty from the civil list. In this he was unsuccessful; and a similar fate attended a motion by Lord Morpeth, for an inquiry into the state of Ireland, with a view to admitting Catholics to the enjoyment of political rights. The next measures of general interest were two acts against *franchise-breaching*; a practice which the Nottingham workmen, pressed by the loss of the American market, and the consequent fall of wages, had carried to an alarming length. The public attention was soon after engaged by ministerial changes. Marquis Wellesley finding himself unable to lead the cabinet, or to prevail on his colleagues to extend the scale of our operations in Spain, resigned in February the secretaryship of foreign affairs, and was succeeded by Lord Castlereagh. The restrictions on the power of the regent now drawing to a close, consistency required an overture for the admission into office of the leader of the opposition, intimate as they had been in former years with his royal highness. This prompted the well-known letter of the 13th February from the prince to the Duke of York, professing a wish to unite with the present ministers "some of those persons with whom the early habits of his public life had been formed." The answer of Lords Grey and Grenville explained their reasons for declining a union with an administration differing so much from them in the most important points of national policy,

namely, the claims of the Irish Catholics, the orders in council, and the over-issue of bank paper. With this explanation the correspondence closed, and the ministry proceeded unchanged until the assassination of Mr Perceval, when Lord Liverpool succeeded to the first station, and was directed by the prince to make an overture to Marquis Wellesley and Mr Canning. This led to nothing; and a motion made in the House of Commons to address the regent, praying him to appoint an efficient administration, was carried by a hundred and seventy-four against a hundred and seventy. This most unexpected vote necessitated a second overture to the opposition, the management of which was committed, first to the Marquis of Wellesley, and afterwards to Lord Moira. It now seemed highly probable that the opposition would come in; yet the negotiation entirely failed, in consequence partly of existing animosities, partly of the stiffness of Lord Grey, partly, perhaps, of a secret reluctance in the court to admit the opposition. Lords Liverpool and Castlereagh remained in office with all the benefit of a declared readiness on their part, and of an apparent unreasonableness in the demands of opposition.

The most urgent question now before parliament was the continuation or repeal of the orders in council. The distress of the manufacturers had become general, and had led, among the lower orders, to commotion and riot; among the higher, to petitions to parliament complaining of our pertinacious adherence to these orders as the cause of the loss of the great market of the United States. An inquiry was instituted on the motion of Mr Brougham. It was conducted by him with astonishing knowledge and talent during several weeks, and every step in its progress gave the evidence a more serious aspect. Still there was a prevailing disposition to cling to those measures, when the accession of Lord Liverpool to the leading station in the cabinet produced their repeal, though unfortunately too late to prevent the American war.

Though parliament had sat during five years only, the victory of Salamanca and our other successes in Spain afforded ministry a favourable opportunity for appealing to the people. A dissolution was proclaimed on the 29th of September; and on the 30th of November the new parliament was opened by the regent in person, who spoke for the first time from the throne. Our partial reverses in the close of the campaign in Spain, and the murmurs of Marquis Wellesley and Mr Canning at the inadequacy of our financial contributions to the peninsular contest, were silenced by the cheering intelligence from Russia, from which Bonaparte was now retreating with tremendous loss. In the progress of the session the attention of the house and of the public was strongly excited by an appeal from the Princess of Wales to parliament, demanding an investigation of her conduct. This led to a motion for a copy of the report delivered by the noblemen charged with the inquiry of 1806; and this motion being negatived, the result was the publication in the newspapers of a succession of papers relating the whole transaction. These papers, however indicative of want of discretion on the part of her royal highness, produced, on the whole, an impression in her favour, as unjustly attacked in her honour. The most interesting debates of the session related to the Catholic question, and the renewal, with important changes, of the charter of the East India Company. The new charter, granted for twenty years from 1814, reserved to the Company the exclusive trade to China, but laid open to the public, with slight qualifications, the trade to all other parts of the East. Among the minor proceedings of the session were an act for lessening the endless delays of chancery, by appointing a vice-chancellor; and an act, which, if it did not enforce clerical residence, held out a strong inducement to it, by obliging incumbents to increase

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The campaign of 1813 opened in the east of Spain, by an attack on the allied army under Sir John Murray, stationed not far from Alicante. The ground it occupied was strong, but the length of the position, two miles and a half, made Suchet, who commanded the French, conceive the hope of penetrating it at one point or another. In this, however, he was foiled with a loss of from two to three thousand men; this being the only check of importance received by that commander in all his campaigns in Spain. Soon after this success, our army was engaged in the bold plan of proceeding by sea to Catalonia, and besieging Tarragona. The wind proved favourable; the main body was landed near Tarragona; and a detachment succeeded, by great exertion, in taking Fort St Philip on the mountain called the Col de Balaguer, which blocked the nearest road for the arrival of the French from the south. Suchet, however, lost no time in marching northwards; and our general, Sir John Murray, considered his force, which was chiefly Spanish, as unable to withstand the French. He therefore embarked and returned to Alicante, a measure which incurred censure, but appears fully justified by circumstances, and still more by the conduct of his successors in the command.

Suchet, though successful on this occasion, soon found himself unable to retain his extensive line of occupation. The battle of Vittoria brought a new enemy on his rear, and obliged him to withdraw, first from Valencia, and subsequently as far as Barcelona. Our army now advanced by land, and resumed the siege of Tarragona, with the power of retreating, not, as before, by sea, but on the country behind; an alternative to which a second advance by Suchet soon compelled our new commander, Lord William Bentinck. The French, however, unable to occupy an extended position, blew up the works of Tarragona and retired. Our army advanced anew, but was again checked and obliged to draw back, exhibiting a striking proof of the impracticability of opposing an active enemy with a mixed force, of which the Spaniards formed a large proportion.

We now turn to the western part of the peninsula, the field of the commander-in-chief, and of the far larger portion of our force. Lord Wellington, averse to open the campaign till every part of his troops was ready to co-operate with efficiency, did not move from quarters till after the middle of May. He knew that he would have much ground to traverse, retreat being evidently the policy of the French, weakened as they were by the recall of twenty-five thousand veterans, who had been feebly replaced by a body of conscripts. Lord Wellington was now, for the first time, at the head of a superior force, which he wielded with consummate skill. The strength of the enemy lay in the line of the Douro, which they expected to defend with advantage, so far at least as to make us purchase dearly its acquisition; but all this was prevented by Lord Wellington making his left division cross the river on the Portuguese territory, and advance along its northern bank; whilst he and Sir Rowland Hill, at the head of separate corps, marched, after several feints, in a diagonal direction, so as to support this movement, and effect a junction in an advanced position. The French, threatened with being taken in the rear, evacuated one town after another, and, even at Burgos, declined to fight on ground where late recollections would have been so animating; they continued to retreat, increasing from time to time their numbers by

the garrisons of the evacuated towns, until at last they took a position at Vittoria, a town in Biscay, near the north-east frontier of Spain. *Regency.*

The position of the French extended from north to south, and was of great length. Their left rested on heights; part of their centre also occupied heights, and their right was near the town of Vittoria. The Zadorra, a stream of considerable size, but crossed by several bridges, ran nearly parallel to their front. Both armies were numerous, particularly that of the allies. It was the first time that nearly forty thousand British had fought together in Spain. Lord Wellington acted on the offensive throughout, and began active operations by taking possession of the heights near the extreme left of the enemy. This was easily effected; but their importance being soon perceived by the French, a strong effort was made to recover them; and an obstinate contest took place, but the British on the heights repelled every assault. Under cover of these heights our right wing advanced and took a village (Sabijana) in front of the enemy's centre. It was in vain that the French attempted to retake this village. The centre of the allies crossed the river near it, and the centre of the French withdrew from their position, retreating to the town of Vittoria. At first this retreat was effected in good order; but an alarming account soon reached the French from their right. That part of their position had been defended by the river and two *trés-de-pont*; but the troops of our left wing had taken, first the heights commanding these forts, and soon after the forts themselves, baffling every effort of the enemy to retake them. The great road leading to the north was thus in possession of the allies; hence general alarm and confusion spread throughout the French army. Their reserve was hastily withdrawn from its position, and pressed, with the whole army, along the only remaining road to the eastward; abandoning all their artillery, their ammunition, and their baggage. The loss of the battle was imputed by the French to Jourdan, whom Bonaparte, in a luckless hour, had allowed his brother to substitute for Soult, and who here, as at Talavera, was too late in discovering the importance of commanding positions. The loss in men was not particularly severe; that of the allies in killed and wounded was under four thousand, and that of the French probably not much greater. The temptation afforded by the plunder of the baggage prevented our troops from making many prisoners; but the spirit of the enemy was shaken, and the loss of their artillery and stores obliged them to retreat across the Pyrenees.

The next operation of consequence consisted in the siege of San Sebastian, a frontier fortress of great importance, which the French made the most vigorous efforts to relieve. Their army, provided anew with ammunition and cannon, advanced under the command of Marshal Soult, and, after some sharp actions, drove back the British corps posted in the passes of the Pyrenees. Our troops retreated to the vicinity of Pamplona, where, on the 27th, and still more on the 28th, they sustained a succession of impetuous attacks from the enemy. On the 29th Lord Wellington resumed the offensive, drove the French from their position, strong as it was, and obliged them to retrace their steps through the Pyrenees. Our loss in these actions was about six thousand men in killed and wounded; that of the enemy was still greater, exclusive of about four thousand prisoners.

At San Sebastian we had been repulsed in an assault on the 25th of July; the siege was continued, and a final assault, on the 31st of August, led to the capture of the place, though with the loss of two thousand five hundred men. The further operations were, the entrance of our army on the French territory on 7th October, the capitulation of Pamplona on the 26th, and a general attack on the position

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The causes of this great change will be fully explained under another head. They are but partly to be found in the operations above described; for although the Spanish war had proved extremely injurious both to the finances and military establishment of Bonaparte, his power was so great, that nothing could have shaken it but a vast and sudden catastrophe. From the moment that he lost his armies in Russia, there existed substantial grounds for hope; and after the accession of Austria to the coalition, there was little reason to doubt his overthrow. The resources of France continued indeed unreservedly at his disposal; and the dread of a counter-revolution gave him the support of the majority of a nation long disgusted with his domineering spirit and never-ending wars. But the preponderance of military means was irresistible; in vain did he struggle against it in Saxony in 1813, and in Champagne in 1814. His partial successes served only to excite a temporary illusion; and the occupation of Paris by the allies proved, like its possession by successive parties in the revolution, decisive of the fate of France.

The cheering expectations with which parliament separated were happily realized in the course of the autumn; and parliament re-assembled on the 4th of November with the knowledge that the victory at Leipzig had secured the independence of Germany, and enabled our allies to shake the throne of the usurper. There was but one opinion, that at such a juncture every exertion, whether financial or military, should be made to complete the deliverance of the Continent. All the propositions of ministers were adopted; and on the 17th of November parliament adjourned to the 1st of March, evidently in the hope that before that period the advance of the allied arms into France would lead to a general pacification. This result, justified by sound calculation, was delayed by the precipitancy of the Prussians, and the consequent checks received by them and their allies; so that parliament, when it met on the 1st of March, adjourned to the 21st; and, on their assembling at that date, Lord Castlereagh being still absent on the Continent, the business transacted during several weeks was of inferior interest. Next came the discussions on the corn trade, the budget of the year, and an additional measure for the preservation of tranquillity in Ireland. A general pacification had by this time taken place; and the arrangements of ministers afforded little opening for animad-

version, except as to the compulsory transfer of Norway **Regency.** from Denmark to Sweden. That question was warmly debated in both houses; and a motion relative to it, made in the House of Lords by Earl Grey in a speech of uncommon eloquence, received the support of eighty-one votes against a hundred and fifteen. The further proceedings of the session were an address, praying the regent to interest himself with foreign powers for a prompt and general abolition of the slave-trade; a vote of £400,000, in addition to the £100,000 of the preceding year, to the Duke of Wellington; and grants, but on a far smaller scale, to Generals Graham, Hill, and Beresford, who were now raised to the peerage. On the Princess of Wales a settlement of £35,000 was definitively made.

We have now arrived at the period when, after a contest which, as far as regards England and France, may be termed a war of twenty years, Europe was restored to a condition which promised long-continued peace. The principal provisions of the treaty of Paris in 1814, and the congress of Vienna in 1815, were as follow:—

France was circumscribed within her former territory, with the addition of part of Savoy, which, however, was relinquished in 1815 to the king of Sardinia.

Austria recovered Lombardy, and added to it Venice with its adjacent territory, possessing thus a population of twenty-nine millions, being very nearly equal to that of France, and considerably greater than that which she possessed in 1792.

Germany was declared a great federal body, as before the French revolution, with the distinction that a number of petty districts and principalities were incorporated into the larger, such as Bavaria, Wirtemberg, Hesse-Cassel, and Hesse-Darmstadt; and with the further distinction, that there is now no imperial head, but an understood division of influence between the two great powers, Austria being the protectrix of the south, and Prussia of the north. These are the progressive advances towards consolidation; and to them may be added the formation of a diet, still devoid of unity and slow in deliberation, but not altogether so tardy or disunited as its predecessors at Ratisbon.

Russia has during the present age suffered no reduction of her territory, but has proceeded in a regular course of acquisition. Her power, though less colossal than is vulgarly supposed, has received a substantial addition by the acquisition of Finland and of the greater part of Poland. Two thirds of what once was Prussian Poland, and a part of Galicia, were formed in 1815 into a kingdom, which, however, has recently been overthrown.

Prussia, on the other hand, has exhibited a striking example of the mutability of political greatness. Raised by the talents of Frederick II. to a rank above her real strength, but making after his death successive additions to her territory by the dread of her arms, and by diplomatic combinations, she saw the whole fabric overturned by Bonaparte in one fatal campaign. From 1807 to 1813 her dominions continued circumscribed, and her population hardly exceeded six millions. But the arrangements of 1814 restored to her a third of Russian Poland, and a valuable tract of country on the Lower Rhine; and her population is now above ten millions.

Of her colonial conquests from France, England retained Tobago, St Lucie, and the Isle of France. The peace confirmed also our possession of Malta and the Cape. Of the other Dutch settlements, Surinam and Java were restored; but Demerara, Berbice, and Essequibo, containing a number of British settlers, were retained; the merchants of Holland, however, enjoying certain privileges of trade with these colonies. On the continent of Europe we effected a long-desired, though (as the event has shown) insecure measure, the union of the seven Dutch and ten

Regency. Belgian provinces into one kingdom. The latter, in their detached state, presented too tempting an object for France, and would have proved the cause of repeated wars, in which England, from her interest in the independence of Holland, and her dread of invasion, could hardly fail to participate.

The losses of Denmark rank among the most painful consequences of the wars of the French revolution. To strip that pacific and inoffensive kingdom, first of its navy, and next of a kindred country, governed by the same sovereign during four hundred years, were acts that called forth the regret and condemnation of every unprejudiced observer. The transfer of Norway was opposed by the inhabitants; and we add with regret, that our navy was ordered to take part against them by blockading their ports. At last the affair was terminated by a convention pronouncing the union of Sweden and Norway under the same sovereign, but reserving to the latter her separate constitution. Pomerania was transferred from Sweden to Prussia, and Denmark received a small territory to the south of Holstein.

Sweden had enjoyed during many years the advantage of neutrality, and, like Denmark, increased gradually her shipping and trade. Deviating from this in 1805, and becoming a party to the coalition against France, she was saved from hostilities by the rapid overthrow of Austria; and Pomerania was not attacked until 1807, when Gustavus IV. chose to refuse peace at the time when he had not the support of a single continental ally. This and other acts of madness led to his deposition in 1809; and the year after, Europe saw with surprise the nomination of Bernadotte as the efficient head of the Swedish government. This choice, attributed at first to the interference of Bonaparte, was due, it seems, to the personal exertions of Bernadotte himself. The acquisition of Norway, and the introduction into Sweden of various improvements by an active-minded foreigner, are advantages of magnitude, and calculated to form some counterpoise to the loss of Finland and the increased danger from Russia.

Spain and Portugal preserved their territory unaltered; both had received rude shocks from the invader, but in both the reign of superstition and indolence seemed so firmly fixed as to bid defiance to political change, whether introduced by mild or by harsh means. The events of 1820, however, have shown, that in Spain there exists that sense of the abusive nature of their institutions, and that desire of reform, which in France produced the revolution; while in Portugal, notwithstanding her degraded condition, results ultimately favourable may be expected from the natural course of events.

Switzerland, without being made a province of France, had been obliged to furnish a military contingent in the wars of Bonaparte. The arrangements of 1814 maintained her as a federal state, but with nineteen cantons instead of thirteen; an increase derived, not from extended territory, but from the independent form acquired by certain districts, such as the Pays de Vaud, incorporated formerly with the original cantons.

The king of Sardinia was restored to Piedmont, and his other continental possessions, with the addition of the territory of Genoa.

The country of all Europe most likely to profit by the occupancy of the French was Italy. The substitution of an efficient government for the feeble administrations of Naples and Rome, the diminution of superstition, the increase of industry, the extirpation of robbery on the high ways, and the new modelling of the military establishment, were all objects of the highest importance. To these was added a hope of blending all the states of the peninsula into a common union; a union most ardently desired by

the Italian nation, and calculated, above all things, to preserve their country from war and the intrusion of foreigners. The selfish policy of Bonaparte, whose object was merely to extract from every country the utmost possible supply of revenue and recruits, prevented the adoption of this grand measure, until the re-assumed sway of foreigners, in particular of the Austrians, removed it to an indefinite distance, and reinstated the territorial divisions of Italy on the footing of 1792, with the exception of the republics of Venice and Genoa.

The royal family of Naples remained in Sicily during 1814; but Murat was not recognised by the Bourbons, and dreaded, with reason, that the allies would deem their task incomplete if they did not restore the crown of Naples to the ancient family. He armed in self-defence, and no sooner did he hear of Bonaparte's entrance into Lyons, than he advanced against Lombardy, and called upon all the Italians to unite in the assertion of their national independence. But his troops were unable to cope with the Austrians; after some partial successes they were obliged to retreat; and finding, in some sharp actions on their own territory, the continued superiority of their opponents, the eventual result was, the dispersion of the Neapolitan army, and the surrender of their capital on the 22d of May. The royal family now returned from Palermo to Naples, and resumed their sovereignty. Murat then escaped to Toulon; but, after the second return of the Bourbons, he proceeded to Corsica, and conceived the wild project of landing in the Neapolitan territory at the head of a feeble detachment, in the hope of being joined, like Bonaparte on returning from Elba, by thousands of his ancient followers. He disembarked in Calabria, but was forthwith attacked by the inhabitants, taken, and shot by order of the royal family, who were thus left in undisputed possession of the crown.

Turkey was no party to the treaty of 1814, but remained on the footing on which the treaty with Russia in 1812 had placed her. Stationary in an age of change, and inflexible in her adherence to traditional usages, she saw the French revolution pass without sustaining any injury from it; or rather she was indebted to it for a relaxation in the shocks to which the European part of her empire is exposed from Austria and Russia. The peace of 1790 had been preserved uninterrupted by Austria; that of 1791 was infringed by Russia by only one war, viz. from 1807 to 1812. The temporary occupation of Egypt by the French, and the more permanent establishment of England in the Ionian Islands, have had no effect on the interior of the Turkish empire.

We must now proceed to record military operations conducted in a very different quarter, and involving considerations very distinct from those which animated the contest on the continent of Europe. The United States of America continued on friendly terms with us during several years after the beginning of the war of 1803. There existed discussions, and of rather a serious nature, between the two countries, particularly in regard to the practice of our naval officers of impressing American seamen on suspicion, or pretended suspicion, of their being British subjects; but these contests were happily confined to diplomata. Meantime the navigation of the Americans was in a course of rapid extension; for their neutral flag enabled them to act as carriers to the continental belligerents, and, in particular, to convey to Europe the produce of the French and Spanish West Indies. The depression of our West India trade in 1805, though the unavoidable result of too great a growth of produce for a system of monopoly, was attributed to the successful rivalry of the Americans in the continental markets. Mr Pitt was assailed by our ship-owners, and prevailed on to take measures which obliged the Americans to forbear the direct passage

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Regency. across the Atlantic, and to give such cargoes a neutral character by carrying them in the first instance to their own ports. The Grenville ministry maintained what Mr Pitt had done, and went no farther; but they were succeeded by men actuated by different views. A parliamentary committee, appointed in June 1807 to inquire into the distress of our West India colonies, received evidence calculated to strengthen an impression already very general, that a total stop ought to be put to the conveyance of French or Spanish colonial produce in neutral bottoms. No sooner did the successful termination of the Copenhagen expedition give popularity to the system of vigour than we issued the orders in council of November 1807, the object of which, however disguised, was to put a stop to neutral traffic, except when carried on by license from our government; thus assuming the power of restricting or extending that traffic as we should find beneficial to our interest, or rather, as we should imagine to be beneficial, since, in questions of commerce, the real is frequently far different from the anticipated result.

In this explanation of these ill-understood orders, we exclude from the motives of ministers all participation in that jealousy of America which actuated so many of our countrymen. We consider them as acting from conviction, as seeking in this measure only a source of benefit to our commerce, and of annoyance to our enemies in Europe; yet, even with these qualifications, the orders in council have contributed more than any other measure in the present age to the distress which afterwards afflicted our country. Their first practical result was a suspension of the navigation of the Americans by a general embargo imposed by their own government; and this preliminary measure was in a few months succeeded by a non-intercourse act, which continued in operation above a year, during which our exports to America were greatly reduced, and our manufacturers distressed to a degree that ought to have served as a warning of the consequences of a further contest with our best customers. In 1809, in consequence of a temporary arrangement, the intercourse was resumed, and exports from England to America took place to a great amount. But the offensive part of our system was soon afterwards revived; the Americans were prevented from trading with France, Italy, or Holland, and the only conciliatory answer given by our government, was a promise to recall our orders in council whenever the Americans should obtain from Bonaparte the repeal of his Berlin and Milan decrees. This repeal was in some measure obtained in 1810, but nothing could wean our ministry from their predilection for what they accounted a grand political measure; and those who inspect the official communications of the two governments, will see with surprise the expedients devised, and the promises held out, to gain time and to delude the Americans, while, in fact, there never was an intention of recalling the obnoxious decrees. The Americans offered explicitly to recall all hostile edicts "if we revoked our orders;" but this not being complied with, their ports were definitively shut against us, and our manufacturers reduced to great distress; a distress portrayed in colours unfortunately too impressive in the parliamentary papers on the orders in council, printed in the early part of 1812. But no change could be effected in our measures till the accession of Lord Liverpool to the first ministerial station, when a repeal took place, but unhappily too late, the Americans having declared war before this intelligence could reach them. From this time forward the impartial narrator finds it his duty to transfer the charge of aggression from England to America. We had

Regency. now a minister aware of the evil tendency of our orders in council, and prepared to make reasonable concessions to the Americans; whilst they, heated by the contest, and attributing the change to the dread of losing Canada, refused our offers of accommodation.

The naval conflicts in the first year of the war were of a nature greatly to surprise the public, accustomed as it was to our almost uninterrupted triumphs at sea. The *Guerrière* frigate was captured on 19th August 1812, by the Constitution American frigate; and the Macedonian on the 25th of October by another American frigate called the *United States*. If these losses could in any degree be attributed to the fault of our officers, no such charge could be brought in the case of Captain Lambert of the *Java*, a brave and intelligent commander, who, after a dreadful conflict, was obliged, on the 29th of December, to strike to the Constitution. In this, as in the preceding actions, the real cause of failure lay in the disproportion of strength: the *Guerrière* having only two hundred and sixty-three men, her antagonist four hundred and seventy-six; the Macedonian only three hundred, the *United States* four hundred and seventy-eight. Even the *Java*, though a large frigate, had only three hundred and sixty-seven men, her opponent four hundred and eighty. The inequality in weight of metal was still greater, each of these American frigates having been originally intended for a ship of the line. No sooner did the two nations meet on an equal footing, in the case of the *Chesapeake* and *Shannon*, June 1st 1813, than the superiority was found to rest with us.

The operations by land were offensive on the part of the Americans, and directed to the conquest of Canada, of which the frontier adjoins their northern states, extending in a long line from south-west to north-east. The boundary consists in a great measure of water, being formed partly by the immense lakes Erie and Ontario, partly by the course of the St. Lawrence. On the south-west part of this frontier a body of two thousand three hundred Americans, regulars and militia, advanced in July 1812 from the small fort of Detroit. Their operations, at first successful, were soon checked by a British detachment; retreat became unavoidable, and our troops assuming the offensive in their turn, the result was the surrender, on the 16th of August, of the whole body of Americans and of the fort of Detroit. Not discouraged by this failure, another detachment of Americans assembled near Niagara; but, after a sharp action on the 13th of October, were obliged, like their countrymen, to surrender. A further attempt, on the part of the Americans, to force the Niagara frontier on the 28th November was likewise unsuccessful; whilst, in a different quarter, at a distance of nearly three hundred miles to the north-east, the advance of their main body to Champlain proved ineffectual, the preparations on our side necessitating their retreat. Lastly, a detachment advancing, in January 1813, in the hope of retaking Fort Detroit, were themselves attacked by a British division, and obliged to surrender.

These repeated failures were the result, not of a deficient activity or courage, but of impatience and insubordination, the restraint of discipline being ill suited to a nation that acknowledges no master. But, in the next campaign, the Americans took the field with augmented forces and an improved plan of action.¹ A strong division crossing Lake Ontario, landed on the 27th April at York, the chief town of Upper Canada, and took it, with its stores and part of the garrison. A check was indeed given to them in a very different quarter, on the *Mimi*, a river falling into Lake Erie; but next month a strong body of Americans pene-

¹ Letter from Mr Monroe to Mr Foster, 26th July 1811.

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trated the Niagara frontier; and an attempt made by the British on Sackett's harbour, a port in Lake Ontario, failed through the misconduct of the general. Still the progress of the American main body into Canada from the Niagara was obstructed, and checks experienced by them in a way that clearly demonstrated the inexperience of their troops. They forbore, therefore, to advance by land, and directed their efforts to a naval superiority. On Lake Erie, the more remote of the two from our Canada settlements, this superiority was acquired in September; after the capture of our petty squadron under Captain Barclay; and the consequence was our abandoning the more distant posts in Upper Canada. On Lake Ontario the naval contest was long maintained; and an attempt made, in November, by a strong division of Americans, to descend the St Lawrence in small craft, and to threaten Montreal, was rendered abortive by the activity of our troops. The campaign was then closed by our opponents without making any serious impression on Canada, though their force exceeded twenty thousand men. On our part, the campaign terminated by taking Fort Niagara by surprise, and repulsing, near the small town of Buffalo, a corps of two thousand men brought forward to check our advance. The town was burned in retaliation for a similar excess committed by the Americans.

The inclemency of an American winter suspended hostile operations for some months. The first exploit of consequence in next campaign took place on Lake Ontario, and consisted in an attack by a British division and squadron on Fort Oswego, which, with its stores, fell into our hands. In the beginning of July an American division, five thousand strong, crossed the Niagara, already so often traversed, and obliged the opposing force to retreat. But the opportune arrival from Bourdeaux of some regiments which had served in France soon enabled our troops to make a stand; and on the 25th of July there took place an action more obstinate, and better sustained on the part of the Americans, than any that had yet occurred in the war. They were finally repulsed, but the loss was heavy on both sides. Some time after, a sally made by the garrison of Fort Erie against a detachment of British entrenched in the vicinity, though at first successful, was eventually repulsed. But a very different result attended an offensive enterprise, on a large scale, attempted by us on the side of Lake Champlain. For this purpose our commander, Sir G. Prevost, assembled all his disposable force, amounting, with the reinforcements from Europe, to nearly fifteen thousand men, crossed the American frontier, and marched southward to attack Plattsburgh, a fortified town on Lake Champlain. The attack on the land side was combined with that of a flotilla, consisting of a frigate and several smaller vessels, which, coming within sight on the 11th of September, engaged an American flotilla of nearly equal force. Unfortunately our commanding officer was killed, and our flotilla captured; a check which, though in itself of no great moment, induced our general to make a sudden retreat. This retreat, in the face of so inferior an enemy, was altogether inexplicable, and excited general surprise and disappointment. With it closed the operations on the side of Canada, each party having entirely relinquished the idea of offensive war.

As long as there remained a hope of treating with the Americans, our government had avoided offensive operations, and kept the command of our fleet in that station in the hands of Sir John Borlase Warren, an officer who joined diplomatic to nautical habits. At last, however, it became necessary to replace him by one whose spirit of enterprise was more conformable to the impatient ardour of our navy. Admiral Cochrane arrived, and lost no time in concerting an attempt on the American capital, by sail-

ing up the Patuxent, destroying a flotilla in that river, and landing a military force under Major-General Ross, which attacked the American division posted to defend Washington, drove them from their ground, and entered the capital in the evening. Here private property was respected; but of the public buildings there were destroyed not only the arsenal, the dock-yard, and the war office, but the houses of the senate and representative body, the residence of the president, and the bridge across the Potomac. Our troops, being few in number, retreated soon after; and embarking anew, proceeded against Baltimore, where they landed, drove the defending force of the Americans from their position, and approached the town. But the entrance to the harbour being closed by a barrier of sunk vessels, co-operation on the part of the navy was impracticable, and our troops were re-embarked without any loss of consequence, except that of their commander General Ross. A better result had been obtained in an expedition against Alexandria, a trading town on the Potomac, whence a quantity of stores and shipping was brought away. Success also attended an expedition in a very different quarter, namely, in the river Penobscot, at the northern extremity of the United States, adjoining the British province of New Brunswick. Far different was the result of an expedition on a larger scale, directed against New Orleans. Our troops disembarked from the Mississippi, repelled an assault by the Americans, moved forward, and came within six miles of the town, where they found the enemy posted behind a canal, with a breast-work in front, and their right flanked by the Mississippi. After a fortnight passed in mutual preparations, a night attack was at last determined on; but, unexpected difficulties retarding it till day-light, the fire of the Americans from behind their breast-work was pointed with unerring aim, and proved extremely destructive. In the short space of twenty minutes, our three principal officers, and nearly two thousand privates, were killed or wounded; and though, on the opposite side of the river, our attack had been successful, it was determined to relinquish the expedition, and re-embark the troops. This distressing failure was poorly compensated by the capture of Fort Mobile, the last land operation of the war. At sea, our final exploit was the capture of the American frigate President, of fifty-four guns and four hundred and ninety men.

The peace was signed at Ghent, on the 24th of December 1814, and its terms afforded a curious exemplification of the futility of warlike struggles. The territorial possessions of both countries were, with a very trifling exception, left on the same footing as before the war; and not the slightest notice was taken of the questions which had most strongly excited the spirit of hostility on both sides,—neither of the impressment of seamen, a point so important to the Americans, nor of the limitation of the rights of neutral traffic, a topic so often urged among us.

The United States, in no respect a manufacturing country, purchased from us merchandise to an extent annually increasing, and which, in 1807, had reached the amount of £12,000,000 sterling. Every addition to their capital, every year that they passed in peace and prosperity, increased their value to us in a commercial sense; while every blow given to their productive funds necessarily operated in diminution of their purchases and payments. But, far from acting on these impressions, the ministry of 1807 eagerly seized the opening given them by the violence of Bonaparte to assail the trade of America, and issued, in November, those orders which "prohibited all direct intercourse from a neutral port to France, or her tributary states, unless the neutral vessels intended for such voyages touched first at a port in the British dominions, and paid a duty." This singular measure was vindicated, not as legal

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Regency. in itself, but as a trespass on neutral rights justified by the previous trespasses of the French government. It would, it was argued, distress that part of the Continent subject to Bonaparte, and excite discontent against his government; but the real motive was to cramp and control the trade of neutrals. That the Americans would not submit to such humiliating conditions, nor government was well aware; but it knew also that they had neither army nor navy, and would not, at least for several years, resort to the alternative of war. So far our calculation was correct; but the question of national advantage we entirely misconceived. For what was the practical operation of these restrictive edicts? The trade of the Americans with the Continent was suspended, and the remittances formerly made to us from the sale of their goods—remittances not overrated at four or five millions a year—were made no more. Our bank paper fell, more from that than from any other cause, into a discredit which occasioned a loss of twenty, thirty, and eventually nearly forty per cent. on all subsidies and other government expenditure on the Continent. The mercantile insolvencies in America which followed the orders in council recoiled, in a great degree, on England, whose exporting merchants were the chief creditors of the bankrupts. Next came the burdens and the havoc of war; and of every million of American capital thus diverted from productive industry, the half at least was lost to the British manufacturer. But this was not all; the suspended intercourse, and the subsequent appeal to arms, induced the Americans to attempt to manufacture for themselves. This for several years excluded our goods; and when, upon the return of peace, British merchandise was poured into the United States, at prices so low as to defy competition, the consequence, particularly in the year 1819, was a scene of general insolvency in the States, which once more recoiled with the most distressing effects on the British creditor. All this was the result of a policy bad in every point of view, and which neither had nor could have any decisive influence on the grand contest in Europe.

We now return from this necessary digression to the ordinary course of our narrative. Parliament assembled on the 18th November; and, after the transaction of some business, relative chiefly to keeping the English militia embodied, and preserving the peace of Ireland, adjourned on the 2d December. They met again on the 9th February, and were soon after called on to discuss a most important department of home policy, namely, the corn laws. The prospect of the return of peace, and of large imports of corn from the Continent, had early excited the attention of the landed interest; and a committee, appointed in the spring of 1813, had made a report to parliament recommending the prohibition of foreign corn, except when wheat at home should be at or above the very high price of a hundred and five shillings the quarter. No proceedings on the subject took place that session, and next year the sense of the public was so unequivocally declared against this extravagant proposition, that a great reduction was indispensable; and, on bringing forward the resolutions connected with the subject, it was proposed to allow the importation of foreign wheat whenever our own should be at or above eighty-seven shillings. Still this limit appeared too high; the debates were warm; the petitions against the bill numerous; and, ministers suspending their support, the main part of the question was in consequence adjourned to next year. In the summer and autumn corn underwent a great fall, and the farmers experienced much distress; the consequence of which, and of the evidence given before the parliamentary committees, was, that government determined to support a corn bill on a reduced scale, foreign wheat being rendered in-

admissible when our own should be at or below eighty shillings. Resolutions to that effect were moved on the 17th February, and a bill founded on them was soon afterwards brought in. It still experienced opposition, particularly from Mr Baring and others, who argued that the limitation price ought not to be permanent, but subject to a graduated abatement during a series of years, till at last the corn trade should arrive at that unrestrained state so essential to commerce at large. But notwithstanding these arguments, and a tumultuous opposition without doors, the bill was carried by large majorities in both houses of parliament.

But from discussions of internal policy, the attention of parliament was suddenly directed to a more urgent topic; we mean the return of Bonaparte from Elba, and a notice of an immediate augmentation of our forces. An address to the regent, in support of this augmentation, was carried by great majorities; and a subsequent motion by Mr Whitbread, to prevent our interference for the reinstatement of the Bourbons, was lost by two hundred and seventy-three against seventy-two. Finally, the addresses in approbation of the treaties with the continental powers were supported by Lord Grenville, Mr Grafton, and other oppositionists; the numbers in the Lords being a hundred and fifty-six against forty-four; and in the Commons, three hundred and thirty-one against ninety-two. The further proceedings were an approval of the treaty of peace with America, and of the very questionable transfer of Genoa to the king of Sardinia. The session was concluded by a repeal of the law for fixing the price of bread in London by assize.

The ratification of the peace with America had not been received from the other shore of the Atlantic, when Bonaparte returned from Elba and raised in Europe a fresh alarm of war. He ventured to land with a force barely sufficient to secure his personal safety in a march, and to supply emissaries for mixing with the opposite ranks. The French soldiers are fond of glory, and their attachment revived at the sight of their leader. They first refused to oppose, and soon after pressed forward to join him; and he proceeded in a rapid and unresisted march to the capital. Ought England to participate in the coalition formed to expel this intruder, and to reinstate the Bourbons? On this question there existed, either in parliament or the public, very little difference of opinion; so great was the enmity inspired by Bonaparte, and such the dread of incessant war under his sway. Our ministry soon took their determination; our continental allies were unanimous in the cause; and not a day was lost in preparing for the invasion of France. The Netherlands, it was evident, would be the first scene of operations. Thither the Prussians pressed with all the ardour inspired by recent wrongs and a present desire of vengeance; thither were conveyed from England troops, ammunition, and stores, with all the dispatch afforded by the undisputed command of the sea. By the end of May or beginning of June the Prussian and British force in the Netherlands was superior to any that could be mustered by Bonaparte. It was not till the second week of June that his disposable force, to the number of a hundred and fifteen thousand men, was collected in front of the allied line. This was effected with great secrecy and dispatch. He joined the camp on the 14th, and caused his troops to march early on the 15th, driving in successively the Prussian outposts at Charleroi and Fleurus. From the point whence he marched to Ligny, the Prussian head-quarters, the distance was thirty miles; to Brussels, the head-quarters of Lord Wellington, was nearly twice as far; and all Bonaparte's hope rested on fighting his opponents separate and unsupported. Intelligence of the first movements of the French reached Lord Wel-

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Meanwhile there had been fought at Ligny a battle on a larger scale, and with greater preparation. On the slope of a rising ground, which, however, was much exposed, a Prussian army, of no less than eighty thousand men, awaited the attack of Bonaparte. The fighting began between

two and three o'clock, by the French gaining possession of the village of St Amand, on the Prussian right. To re-occupy this village Blucher made repeated efforts; and it was during one of the most furious of these that Bonaparte is understood to have ordered round the corps, the absence of which was so bitterly regretted by Ney. The battle now raged fiercely along the whole line. The masses of Prussian infantry drawn up on the slope were much thinned by the French artillery; but in the village of Ligny, which was repeatedly taken and retaken, the slaughter was peculiarly great. Such was the course of the engagement till the evening at half-past eight o'clock, when the French reserve, marching forward in columns, obliged the Prussians to leave the long-contested field. Their loss on this dreadful day was little short of twenty thousand; that of the French exceeded ten thousand.

Next day Bonaparte adopted the plan of detaching under Grouchy a body of thirty-four thousand men to follow the retreating Prussians, whilst, with the mass of his force, seventy-one thousand in number, he turned against the British, in the hope of fighting a battle at the head of superior numbers. Lord Wellington knew not the retreat of his allies till morning, when a similar measure on his part became indispensable; but as his army was in the best state, and as the Prussians had just received a reinforcement, retreat was necessary only until reaching a position favourable for fighting, and for awaiting the co-operation of his allies. Waterloo, he well knew, presented these advantages; his march thither met with no annoyance from the French; and the only fighting which took place on the 17th was at Genappe, in a cavalry action begun by our rear-guard. Bonaparte following with his van-guard, reached the ground opposite to our position, and in the evening ordered a partial cannonade to ascertain if we occupied the latter with an intention to remain. Concluding in the affirmative, he began arrangements for a battle; and next morning he continued under a similar impression, although in his army there was a general belief, that we would not venture to await their onset. At ten o'clock he perceived by his glass, in march at a great distance, a corps which he immediately concluded to be Prussians. This necessitated his posting a body of above eight thousand men on his right to receive them; a disposition which deprived him of his numerical superiority, and caused the battle of Waterloo to be fought between equal or nearly equal forces. It began soon after mid-day by an attack on the post of Hougomont, a chateau or country-seat in front of our right, surrounded by an orchard. The possession of this point would have favoured the approach of the French to our right wing; but though they drove us from the orchard, all their efforts proved ineffectual against our troops, a detachment of guards, stationed in the building and within the court wall. This attack, though very obstinate and sanguinary, was in the eye of either commander only a prelude to the great onset in the centre, which commenced towards two o'clock, being planned by Bonaparte, and conducted by Ney, whose station during the action was in the high road leading straight to our centre. Our army made little show, the battalions being formed in squares, and partly concealed from view by the sinuities of ground; whilst between each square there were openings sufficient to enable the battalions to deploy into line, as well as to afford our cavalry space to advance and charge. The squares were further placed *en echiquier*, like a chess-board, so that the enemy's cavalry, in venturing through an opening, exposed itself to a fire in front from the opposite square, and to a double flank fire from the squares which it had passed. Yet this firm array did not appal the French cuirassiers, who, confiding in past successes and in the protection of their armour, repeatedly tried the deadly experiment of

Regency. attack. Never was the impetuosity of the French more conspicuous, and never was it more effectually opposed, whether we consider the firmness of our troops, the judgment of our general, or the efficiency of our artillery. The only ground gained by the French was the central point of La Haye Sainte and the space immediately in front of our line,—the whole being attained, said Ney, by a carnage the most dreadful he had ever seen. Meanwhile Bonaparte watched anxiously the moment when a partial breach or disorder in our line should afford him a favourable opportunity of attacking with his reserve. Ney repeatedly intimated an expectation of great success, but could report no positive advantage, even after the double charge made by the imperial horse guards at five in the afternoon. It became, however, indispensable to act, and Bonaparte could hardly doubt that the long-continued conflict must by this time have greatly weakened our line. Accordingly, between six and seven o'clock, the imperial foot guards, to the number of nearly thirteen thousand, were drawn from behind the ridge which had hitherto covered them from our fire; directed to advance along the high road leading to our centre; and harangued by Bonaparte, whom they answered with reiterated cries of *Vive l'Empereur*. We are now come to the decisive part of the battle, that part in which, till now, whether at Marengo, at Austerlitz, or at Ligny, success had uniformly attended the charge of a fresh and numerous corps. By what means did it fail at Waterloo? The answer is, that our line, though thinned, was nowhere disordered; that our battalions, though reduced, were firm in their position. Besides, the duke, apprised of the approach of his allies, moved round an additional force from his left to his centre, and directed our battalions to deploy from their squares into a line four deep. Its formidable aspect, and the knowledge of the approach of the Prussians, prevented Ney from attempting the last resource, namely, a bayonet charge by the guards. Their ranks, however, were rapidly thinned, for the fire from the British line was much more extensive and destructive than that of the columns of the enemy. It was now that the duke perceived the approach of the Prussian main body, and ordered a general forward movement; the French retired, at first slowly and in good order; but seeing that behind them it was falling into confusion, the artillerymen and wagon train cutting the traces of their horses, and pressing to gain the high road to which the Prussians were fast advancing, the retreat soon became a rout. Our troops advanced over the field of battle, crossed the hollow beyond it, and towards nine at night reached the ridge occupied by the French staff during the day. Their task was now fulfilled, and the Prussians were left to pursue the flying enemy. The loss on our side amounted to thirteen thousand men; that of the French opposed to us, exclusive of the loss caused by the Prussians, was about twenty thousand.

This great battle displayed no manoeuvring; the plan was formed, and the whole was a succession of impetuous attacks and obstinate repulses; but the talents of either commander were not the less conspicuously displayed; the one in making no fruitless application of his force, the other in never permitting the ardour of his troops to lead them from their ground or to deviate from a defensive plan. Bonaparte committed two errors; first, throwing away his superb cavalry so early in the action; and, secondly, as a consequence of this, ordering the advance of his guards, who, though they might penetrate our line at a particular point, had no chance of gaining a victory when unsupported by cavalry, and were besides likely to be soon wanted as a rear-guard to their own army. In the battle Lord Wellington appears to have committed no error. On the preceding days his fault lay in supposing Rus-

cher likely to act with discretion, and in remaining personally at Brussels instead of keeping near to his impatient condottor. Had the latter avoided fighting on the 16th, and retreated only twelve or fifteen miles, the allied forces would have been completely in co-operation; and their numbers, a hundred and sixty thousand, would have deprived Bonaparte of every chance of success.

From Waterloo to Paris, the advance of the allies was an almost uninterrupted march; marked on our part by the capture, by escalade, of two towns, Cambray and Peronne, and on that of the Prussians by an unremitting pursuit of the enemy. On one occasion (the 2d of July, near Versailles), a corps of French cavalry re-asserted their claim to fame, and taught the Prussians the hazard of a precipitate advance; but the success was partial, the evacuation of Paris unavoidable, and resistance hopeless, now that almost all Europe was pouring her armies into the French territory. Hence the second treaty of Paris, concluded after many vain appeals to the generosity of the allies, and which burdened France with contributions to the amount of nearly thirty millions sterling, exclusive of the support of an allied army on her frontier. This army, amounting at first to a hundred and fifty thousand men, was reduced in 1817 to a hundred and twenty thousand, and withdrawn in the end of 1818, when all bore the aspect of continued tranquillity on the Continent.

Regency. The time is scarcely yet arrived for viewing, with the calm impartiality of history, our war against Bonaparte; but the more reflecting part of our countrymen can hardly fail to regret our participation in the war of 1793. Those who know the inoffensive state of the French nation at that time, their general wish for peace, and the reduced condition of their army, can have no doubt that the efforts which subsequently poured forth such a host of combatants owed their existence solely to the threats of the allied powers. Without these the Jacobins would not have triumphed, nor would a military adventurer, like Bonaparte, have had the means of acquiring an ascendancy. Louis XVI. might have been brought to the scaffold, and republican visions might have prevailed for a season; but the eyes of the people would have been opened to the blessings of a constitutional monarchy much earlier than when threatened with invasion, and obliged, in self-defence, to throw undue power into the hands of their new rulers. The first great error, that of the coalition of 1793, was the act of Austria and Prussia; but of the continuance of the continental war after 1795 we were almost the sole cause. Belgium and Holland had, it is true, fallen into the hands of France, and to recover them was an object of the highest interest; but in attempting this, our ministers made no adequate allowance for the jealousies, the prejudices, we may add the incapacity, of the governments whose aid was indispensable to success. In 1803 circumstances had become extremely embarrassing. France was confirmed in the possession of the Netherlands and Italy, and at the disposal of an ambitious ruler, who studied in peace only the means of further encroachment. What course was our government to follow? Were they to continue in peace, and to trust for our eventual safety to the progressive extension of our resources and the improvement of our army; or were they to resort to immediate war, and present, by our declared hostility, a rallying point to other powers? An experienced government would have preferred the former; the ministry of 1803 adopted the latter, not from views of ambition, but from yielding to that popular impulse, which it would not, however, have been impracticable to guide and control. As to the course of the war, it was, during the first two years, a contest without decided success on either side. In its third year, an ill-conducted coalition gave to France that superiority which was to be expected in the

Regency. case of a great military power directed by a single head. Such, in a further degree, was the result of the continental operations of 1806 and 1807. In 1808 Spain occasioned an unexpected change in the calculations of politicians, and showed, in an encouraging light, the power of popular resistance; still its effects, aided even by our military means, produced little decisive of the grand objects of the war. We were proceeding with great zeal and gallantry, but without any definite hope or object, when a catastrophe, as little expected by ourselves as by the French, entirely changed the aspect of affairs, and made it incumbent on us to omit no exertion, financial or military, to redeem the independence of Europe. The success was complete; but it was not till the close of the struggle that we became aware of the amount of the sacrifices which had been incurred in its prosecution.

Parliament met on the 1st of February, and, after some business of minor importance, proceeded, in March, to discuss the interesting question of our military peace establishment. The navy had been reduced with sufficient promptitude; but there seemed, on the part of government, a disposition to keep the army on a scale neither required by the general tranquillity of Europe, nor justified by our financial means, which exhibited several symptoms of decline. Yet a motion for so moderate a reduction as ten thousand from the proposed number of land forces was negatived by two hundred and two to a hundred and thirty; and, in long debates which ensued relative to the army estimates, ministers carried every point, and were likely to keep up the whole upon an expensive scale: when, on the 18th of March, after a long and animated discussion, the question of continuing the property-tax, modified to five per cent., was decided against them by a majority of thirty-seven; there being two hundred and thirty-eight against two hundred and one. This signal and unexpected defeat necessitated a relinquishment of the war malt-duty, and a general reduction of expenditure, which we should have in vain expected from the reason or reflection of our rulers.

Another measure of importance was the regulation, after a long investigation, of the civil list, on a footing which was adopted as a standard in the beginning of the present reign. This was followed by acts for the consolidation of the English and Irish exchequers, and for the exemption of the bank from cash payments during two years; and, finally, by an act for striking off a new silver coinage. Among the minor proceedings of the session may be mentioned a grant of £60,000 a year to the Princess Charlotte and her husband, with a provision, unfortunately too soon required, of £50,000 to the latter in the event of her demise.

This year was distinguished by an important naval operation, namely, the attack upon Algiers. A project had been submitted to the sovereigns assembled at Vienna in 1814, and at Paris in 1815, for the expulsion of the Turkish militia from the Barbary states; but the representatives of the cabinet of London opposed this proposition, on the pretext that the existence of these states had been guaranteed by treaties; and as the scheme for expelling the Turks had been coupled with an absurd proposal to replace the janissaries with the conventual and military order of the knights of Malta, the success of the English opposition excited no regret.¹ It was generally agreed, however, that an end ought to be put to Christian slavery. This was a necessary consequence of the principle which

had been adopted and promulgated relative to negro slavery; and England, which had procured the recognition of the one, undertook the honourable task of effecting the other. But the measures at first resorted to were by no means adequate to the accomplishment of the end in view, and of course failed. An attempt was made to mediate between the regency of Algiers and the kingdoms of Sardinia and Naples; and Lord Exmouth, with a fleet of twenty-six ships, of which six were of the line, was employed to superintend this negotiation. His Lordship accordingly appeared before Algiers in the month of April 1816; the dey yielded; and peace was re-established between these powers "en faveur de l'avance du gouvernement Algérien." But all of a sudden the English government assumed a higher tone, and transmitted orders to Lord Exmouth to demand of the dey, first, the immediate liberation of all Christian slaves; secondly, restitution of the sums which had been paid by the courts of Naples and Sardinia for the ransom of such of their subjects as had been dragged into slavery; thirdly, the renunciation for ever of the practice of reducing to slavery the subjects of the Christian powers of Europe; fourthly, an obligation to treat the subjects of Hanover on the same footing and in the same manner as those of Great Britain.

The situation of Lord Exmouth was disagreeable and embarrassing; inasmuch as he was called upon to present, in the month of May, conditions altogether different from those which had been tendered and accepted in the month of April immediately preceding. But the dey was now cast. Omar Pasha indignantly rejected the new propositions which the admiral was commanded to submit to him; and having assembled a general divan, obtained the concurrence of the tchorbagis, the odobachys, and the yoldachys, who rent the air with their ferocious cries, declaring that they would rather perish than submit to propositions so humiliating. Pressed by the admiral, however, to give a distinct and categorical answer, the dey had recourse to finesse. He was a subject, he said, of the Ottoman Porte. The question at issue was one of the highest importance, and could not be resolved in a definitive manner by him and the militia of Algiers. It was therefore indispensable that he should take the orders of the grand seignor respecting it. Lord Exmouth was not deceived by this specimen of Algerine diplomacy. He knew that the pasha was a man of resolution as well as of address; that he was certain of the support of his furious and fanatical subjects; and that his sole object was to gain time in order to prepare for the conflict which, he foresaw, was impending. However, he affected to be for the present satisfied with the dey's answer, and withdrew to Gibraltar, ostensibly to wait for the decision of the Porte, but in reality for definitive orders from his own government. The latter had already decided on its course.

A powerful squadron was accordingly fitted out at Portsmouth, and dispatched to Gibraltar to reinforce the admiral, who, after its arrival, had under his orders five sail of the line, two of them three-deckers, five frigates of the largest and second class, five sloops of war, four bomb vessels, five gun-boats, furnished each with a sixty-eight-pound carronade, and a dock-yard sloop converted into a fire-ship or explosion vessel; in all twenty-five ships and vessels of war. At Gibraltar six Dutch frigates, under the orders of Vice-admiral Van Capellen, requested to

¹ Speaking of this scheme, Colonel Juchereau de Saint Denis remarks, "C'était mettre le fanatisme Catholique à la place du fanatisme Mahométan; c'était substituer à une classe oisive et improductive, une classe également ennemie du travail et également dépourvue d'industrie. C'était d'ailleurs un acte de pure dévotion et cruauté que de vouloir faire gouverner une population entièrement Musulmane par des moines militaires qui n'avaient été créés que pour combattre perpétuellement et à outrance tous les ennemis du nom Chrétien, et particulièrement les disciples de Mahomet. Cependant ce projet absurde avait pu trouver des échos parmi les diplomates du congrès de Vienne." Pp. 118, 119.

Regency. join the British fleet in the approaching attack, and probably had stations assigned them, although it does not appear in the very precise and masterly order of battle given out by Lord Exmouth. The fleet arrived before Algiers on the 27th of August 1816. The wind was favourable, and a light breeze enabled the ships to take the positions which had been assigned to them. Lord Exmouth then transmitted his ultimatum to the dey. It embodied in substance the propositions presented in May, and required an immediate answer. None whatever was returned. The decision of the question was left to the arbitrement of battle. The fleet instantly weighed, and, led by the flag ship, Queen Charlotte, of a hundred and twenty guns, came to anchor within pistol shot, or rather less, of the batteries on the Mole, and those situated towards the western part of the town. The Queen Charlotte anchored across the entrance of the port, so as to take in flank and reverse such of the batteries as were furthest advanced, and she was supported by the Superb and Impregnable, which were directed to anchor as close to her as possible, to be made fast to each other, and hove together in order to concentrate their fire. The Albion had orders to supply the place of either of the two last mentioned ships that might be thrown out; and, in case of both getting their places, to present her broadside against a flanking battery of three guns, and enfilade the northern part of the works by throwing part of her fire upon the upper tier of the light-house battery. The Dutch appear to have taken their station on the left, in order to produce a diversion by commanding the outer batteries and forts of the eastern part of the place. All these movements were executed with that admirable order and precision which distinguish the operations of the British navy, and also without opposition. The dey, it is said, wished to avoid the reproach of being the first to commence hostilities; and it has been thought that this capital fault contributed to decide the fate of the action. But this is a mistake. Had the Algerines opened their fire on the ships as they approached, the casualties might have been more numerous, but the result would have been the same.

When the British line of attack had been completely established, two shots were fired on the flag ship from the grand battery of the Mole. The instant he saw the flash of the guns, Lord Exmouth gave the word "Fire away my lads," and the cannonade immediately became general. The battle commenced at three o'clock in the afternoon, and continued without any intermission until nine in the evening, when a land breeze springing up, the ships weighed anchor, and gained an offing, to prepare, if necessary, for a renewal of the attack. While the combat was at the hottest, a detachment of English seamen and marines entered the harbour amidst a murderous fire of grape and musketry, and succeeded in setting fire to and destroying the whole of the Algerine fleet; an event which made a terrible impression on the population of Algiers, and in fact completed its demoralization. They then found what a formidable and daring enemy they had had the hardihood to contend with; and horror soon gave way to despair. The dey durst not risk a renewal of the combat; but next day (the 28th of August) gave his unqualified assent to the propositions which, twenty hours before, he had scorned even to entertain. The terms which Lord Exmouth had the glory to dictate were, first, the total abolition of Christian slavery in future; secondly, the immediate liberation of all slaves within the territories and dependencies of Algiers, of whatever nation they might be; thirdly, the restitution into the hands of the English admiral of the various sums which had been paid since the commencement of the year by Christian powers for the ransom of their subjects

dragged into slavery; fourthly, an indemnification to the English consul for the losses he had sustained, and an apology by the dey in the presence of his ministers and officers for the indignities which the consul had suffered in being arrested and detained in prison during the battle. This was followed by the conclusion of a treaty of peace with the Netherlands, by which all arrears were discharged, and that country ceased to figure among the tributaries of Algiers. Such were the results of this memorable battle, which, to use the words of Sir Charles Ekins (*Naval Battles*, p. 304), "bore the character of a crusade in behalf of Europe, rather than on the part of Great Britain alone, which excited a prodigious sensation throughout all Christendom, and which was believed to have put a final stop to Barbary piracies and depredations."

A general want of work and reduction of wages continued during the year, subjecting the lower orders to great distress, and exposing them to the arts of designing demagogues. Large assemblies, particularly in Spafields, took place previous to the meeting of parliament; and on the day of its opening (the 28th of January) the regent was insulted on his way to the House of Lords. A secret committee of each house was soon afterwards appointed to examine papers in the possession of government, said to bear evidence of serious projects of insurrection; and each made a speedy report, declaring the existence of very dangerous societies. There was in these reports a strain of confident allegation, unaccompanied by specific proof or temperate reasoning, which brought to recollection the declamatory state papers of the French revolution, and gave the reports the appearance of documents framed to disseminate alarms, and justify extreme measures. They engaged, however, the serious attention of the house, and the result was a bill for the suspension of the *habeas corpus* act during the current session of parliament, a measure carried in the Lords by a hundred and fifty to thirty-five, and in the Commons by two hundred and sixty-five to a hundred and three. Towards the close of the session a second report from the secret committees produced an act for continuing the suspension of the *habeas corpus* to the 1st of March 1818.

The continued want of work, and the distress of the lower orders, led to an act for authorizing the issue of exchequer bills to persons finding employment for the poor. The same causes inducing the public to call loudly for retrenchment, the opposition, on the 25th of February, took the sense of the House of Commons on a motion to reduce the number of the lords of the admiralty, and mustered a hundred and fifty-two votes against two hundred and eight. As an offering on the part of government to the prevailing demand for retrenchment, an act was passed for abolishing the two insecure offices of justice in Eyre.

Mr Abbot, who had filled the office of speaker of the house since 1802, finding himself incapable, from continued indisposition, of performing its arduous duties, sent in his resignation, and was succeeded by the Right Honourable Charles Manners Sutton. Mr Abbot was forthwith raised to the peerage by the title of Baron Colchester; and, on the 6th of June, a vote passed the Commons for settling on him a life annuity of £4,000.

Parliament was opened on the 27th of January under circumstances which indicated that the want of work and the distress of trade, though still considerable, were less serious than in the preceding year. A secret committee, appointed anew by each house, reported to that effect; and on their recommendation was brought in a bill to indemnify persons, chiefly magistrates, who had acted in apprehending and detaining individuals suspected of treasonable practices. This bill was not carried without considerable opposition.

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The death of the Princess Charlotte having caused a blank in the succession to the crown, the marriage of the royal dukes became a subject of consideration; but the provision for any increase of expenditure was exposed to difficulty, as well from the distaste of the public, as from the near approach of the time when the members were to meet their constituents. A motion made by ministers to grant £10,000 additional to the Duke of Clarence was not successful, an amendment for reducing it to £6,000 having been carried by a hundred and ninety-three to a hundred and eighty-four. Votes, equally restricted, were passed in the case of the Dukes of Kent and Cambridge; and an attempt to obtain a similar grant to the Duke of Cumberland, who had been several years married, was negatived by a hundred and thirty-two to a hundred and forty-six; but a provision of £8,000 a year was made for the duchess in case she should survive him.

Among the transactions of this year was a grant of £400,000 to Spain, as a compensation for losses attendant on an early abolition of the slave-trade by that power. Certain acts were also passed for the humane treatment of negroes in our sugar colonies. The bank exemption act being about to expire, Mr Vansittart brought in a bill for continuing it another year, on the ground that the loans now contracting in England for France and Prussia carried capital out of the country, and prevented the bank, for a time at least, from diminishing its paper circulation.

Mr Brougham having, early in the session, brought in a bill for investigating the abuses of public charities, it was referred to a committee, and, after some discussion in the Commons, passed to the Lords. There it encountered opposition from Lords Eldon and Redesdale, and was returned to the Commons with material alterations; the commissioners charged with the inquiry being limited in their powers, and restricted to charities connected with education. The act, however, passed in this state, and the labours of the commissioners, like those of the committee on the education of the poor, have been productive of much public advantage. The session was closed on 10th June by a speech from the regent, containing a notice, not only of the prorogation, but of the dissolution of parliament; a measure which for many years had been announced by proclamation.

The new parliament met on the 13th of January 1819, and on the 21st proceeded to business. The demise of the queen having taken place during the recess (on the 17th November), one of the first measures was to vest the custody of the king's person in the Duke of York, who, very imprudently, under the circumstances of the country, demanded and received from parliament an annual allowance of £10,000 for discharging an act of filial duty. This formed a striking contrast to the conduct of the Marquis of Camden, who, possessed of the lucrative sinecure of teller of the exchequer, relinquished £9,000 a year of it to the public; a sacrifice noticed in honourable terms in a vote passed in parliament on the occasion.

Such was the addition made to opposition, by an election under circumstances of general distress, that several measures were carried in this session against ministers; in particular, a motion on the 2d of March, by Sir James Macintosh, for a revision of the criminal code, where the numbers were a hundred and forty-seven against a hundred and twenty-eight, and a motion for a committee on the state of the Scottish burghs, carried by a hundred and forty-nine to a hundred and forty-four. In the division on the grant of £10,000 to the Duke of York, the opposition mustered a hundred and eighty-six votes against two hundred and eighty-one. But the impression excited by these successes was greatly enfeebled by a motion, which arrayed on one side all the strength of government and

that of the neutral party.

We allude to Mr Tierney's motion for an "inquiry into the state of the nation," which was negatived by three hundred and fifty-seven to a hundred and seventy-eight; a division evincing that, though disposed to co-operate with opposition occasionally and for specific objects, the neutral party had no wish for a change of ministry. Encouraged by this success, Mr Vansittart came forward with the bold proposition of new taxes, to the extent of £3,000,000, on the ground of a sum of that amount being absolutely necessary to give efficiency to the sinking fund. Of this sum the chief part was expected from an increase of the duties on malt, spirits, and tobacco; but part also was to be derived from a tax on foreign wool (6d. per lb.); a most singular impost in a country where the exportation of manufactured wool forms a main branch of the national industry. Ministers were conscious of its injurious tendency, but were obliged to bring it forward as an equivalent to the landed interest, for the fresh burden exacted from them in the malt-duty.

The further debates of the session related to the Catholic question and the resumption of cash payments. In the contest pending at this time between Spain and her American colonies, ministers took part with the mother country, so far at least as to discourage by act of parliament the enlistment of our officers and soldiers on the side of the insurgents. In the preceding session £1,000,000 had been voted for building additional churches and chapels for the established religion in England; and this year £100,000 was appropriated for a similar purpose to the established church of Scotland. The last act of the session was a grant made in July, of the limited sum of £50,000, to be shared by government among persons settling on particular conditions at the Cape of Good Hope. This was the first pecuniary aid given by government towards emigration, which is accounted by some the only remedy for our overstock of labourers and manufacturers.

The revival of commercial activity in 1818 proved unfortunately of short duration. Distress returned towards the end of that year, and assumed an aggravated aspect in the course of 1819. This produced popular assemblages, and led, on 16th August, to an unfortunate scene at Manchester, in which the interference of the yeomanry cavalry to disperse a very numerous meeting of the people was productive of loss of life to a number of persons, and of bodily injury to a great many. The irritation excited among the lower orders by this proceeding, and by the continued pressure of poverty, led to the dissemination of a spirit of discontent and disaffection which necessitated the assembling of parliament on the 23d November. The speech of the regent, as well as the discussions of both houses, were directed to this painful subject; and the alarm excited among the aristocracy, joined to other considerations, having finally detached the Grenville party from the opposition, the latter now mustered in less formidable array. On the division for an amendment upon the address to the regent, the numbers were a hundred and fifty against three hundred and eighty.

Several bills were afterwards introduced by ministers for the prevention of disturbances. These consisted in imposing a tax on the petty publications circulated among the lower orders; impeding the circulation of libels; authorizing the seizure of arms; and forbidding military training or seditious meetings. These bills produced long and animated debates; but the most considerable division on the side of opposition, namely, that for limiting the act against seditious measures to three years instead of five, consisted of only a hundred and fifty votes against three hundred and twenty-eight. A motion of a more comprehensive nature for a committee on the state of the country was negatived

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After transacting this and other business of an urgent nature, parliament adjourned; but was soon after brought together by an event which, however conformable to the course of nature, was not at that time expected, namely, the death of George III. The day after the demise, agreeably to established usage, both houses met, and took the oath of allegiance to the new sovereign. On the 2d February they adjourned till the 17th, the day after the interment of his majesty. On that day both houses voted an address of condolence to the present king, after which they proceeded to transact such business as was pressing, and might, according to law, have continued to sit during six months; but ministers judged fit to resort to a dissolution. Another election now took place under circumstances of general distress. The new parliament met on the 21st April, and was opened on the 27th by George IV., in a speech declaring his anxiety for strict economy, but regretting that the state of the country was such as to admit of no reduction of the military force.

The peace of Amiens at first gave hopes of the improvement of Ireland by the introduction of British industry and capital; but these hopes were soon clouded by the renewed contest of 1803. In that contest the public in England and Scotland joined with almost unexampled zeal; but Ireland was less cordial, although it would be altogether erroneous to connect with any political party, whether Catholic or Protestant, the miserable insurrection of the 23d of July 1803. A plot to seize Dublin, almost as extravagant as that of the Cato Street conspiracy in London, was framed by a few infatuated individuals; and in the tumult, which burst forth with great violence but with feeble means, Lord Kilwarden, the chief justice, unhappily lost his life. A party of military soon dispersed the rabble; and of their leaders, most of whom were afterwards apprehended and executed, the only one entitled to notice was Robert Emmett, a young man whose education and talents ought to have placed him above such desperate attempts. The alarm thus excited engaged some time after the attention of parliament, and led to the enactment of two bills, one for a renewed suspension of the habeas corpus act in Ireland, the other for trying rebels by martial law.

The encouragement so generally given to the volunteer system in England and Scotland was not extended to Ireland, from a dread of embodying indiscriminately a people of whom so great a proportion were disaffected. The yeomanry, however, or select volunteers of Ireland, were very numerous, being about eighty thousand; and they had been highly instrumental in putting down the unfortunate insurrection of 1798. In addition to these, Ireland required a body of our regulars and militia amounting to nearly fifty thousand men as a defence against invasion, a guarantee of public tranquillity, and a check on illicit distillation and smuggling. The return yielded by Ireland in the shape of revenue was small, but her supply of recruits to our army and navy was very considerable.

The suspension of the habeas corpus act continued in 1803, a year remarkable as the first in which the Catholic question was submitted to parliament. It was brought forward in the Commons by Mr Fox, in the Person of Lord Grenville; and curiosity was strongly excited in regard to Mr Pitt, who had lately accepted office without carrying his professed object, the grant of political privileges to the Catholics. The minister, however, extricated himself with address; declaring that if his vote could give the Catholics what they desired, they should not long want it, but that at present the prevailing sentiment was against their

claims; and this, in fact, was sufficiently shown by the division which ensued, and exhibited three hundred and thirty-six votes against them, with only a hundred and twenty-four in their favour. Next year the appointment to office of Lord Grenville and Mr Fox raised high the hopes of the Catholics; but the known repugnance of the sovereign to their claims induced these ministers to dissuade a direct discussion of the question in parliament, under an assurance that they would do whatever should be otherwise practicable for obtaining the removal of disabilities. Hence the bill of February 1807, which caused the dismissal of the Grenville ministry, and excited such a ferment in England against the Catholics, as to render it wholly unadvisable to bring forward the question for several years.

In 1809 the Catholic committee in Dublin held public meetings, but confined themselves to preparing a new petition to parliament. Next year they went much farther, and sought to assume an imposing attitude, proposing that ten persons should be deputed by each county to Dublin, and there form an assembly, charged not only with the duty of preparing petitions to parliament, but of taking measures for the redress of the general grievances of the Catholic body. The secretary for Ireland, Mr Wellesley Pole, alarmed at this design, addressed circular letters to the sheriffs of counties, requiring them to prevent the election of the proposed delegates, and even to arrest all persons taking part in such elections. But this order appeared too peremptory to the opposition, and a debate took place, in which Mr Wellesley Pole explained, that, so long as the Catholics confined their proceedings to petitioning, they had received no interruption; but that the delegates proposed to go much farther, and that a body, under the name of a Committee of Grievances, had assembled weekly in Dublin with all the forms of parliament. The house supported the measure adopted by Mr Wellesley Pole, and disapproved of the proceedings of the Catholics. Still the latter deemed this session not unfavourable to the discussion of their political claims, on account of the laurels lately won by our armies in Spain and Portugal, which counted many Catholics in their ranks. The question was brought forward by Mr Grattan, but lost by a large majority in both houses.

The same fate attended its discussion next spring. Another year elapsed; and in the session of 1813 it was brought forward with more combination and better prospects. Mr Grattan, supported by a part of the Cabinet, obtained the assent of the house to several preliminary resolutions; first, that the Catholic disabilities ought to be removed; secondly, that the Catholic clergy should bind themselves by oath to hold no correspondence with Rome except on ecclesiastical business; and, thirdly, that two commissioners should be appointed for examining into the loyalty of persons recommended as deans or bishops among the Catholics. The time occupied in these discussions was considerable, and gave occasion to the Catholic clergy in Ireland to testify their dissent from several of the provisions, particularly from that which restricted their correspondence with Rome. The knowledge of this dissatisfaction made a deep impression on parliament, and gave a turn to the question which induced the supporters of the bill to withdraw it for that session.

The ensuing year unfortunately gave further evidence of the want of temper and union among the Catholics. The court of Rome recommended their acquiescence with the propositions of Mr Grattan; but meetings of the Catholic board at Dublin disclaimed indignantly all foreign interference; and the clergy passed resolutions against the appointment of any Catholic bishop by the British government. The intemperate proceedings of the Catholic board

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These discussions prevented the question from being submitted to parliament in 1814. Next year it was brought forward by Sir Henry Parnell, not by Mr Grattan, who declared that an unconditional grant of the demands of the Catholics was not to be expected, and that, without cultivating a spirit of conciliation, they never would succeed. The motion was lost by a great majority. In 1816 it was again brought before parliament, but in two distinct petitions, of which the more temperate, introduced by Mr Grattan, received the support of a hundred and forty-one against a hundred and seventy-two.

In the year 1817 the question was proposed by Mr Grattan, with the same views as in 1813, and supported by two hundred and twenty-one votes against two hundred and forty-five. The disappointment caused by this failure was soothed not only by the large minority, but by a very substantial concession, obtained soon after, on the proposition of ministers, namely, an act to enable Catholic officers in the army and navy to attain rank nearly on the plan proposed by the Grenville ministry in 1807. In 1818 the Catholic question was not agitated; but in 1819 the tone of that body having become more conciliating, Mr Grattan's motion for taking it into consideration was supported by two hundred and forty-one votes against two hundred and forty-three. Further details of the progress of this great measure towards a successful conclusion will be given in the course of the narrative.¹

There is another subject which deserves a particular notice in this place, more especially as it is connected with an event of deep and lasting interest. We allude to reform in the representation of the people. For several years anterior to 1816, the question had been but little agitated, and seemed to be abandoned to occasional declaimers and mere pot-house politicians. But the general distress which prevailed during that and the following years, with the discontent consequent on the privations to which the working classes were exposed, redirected their attention to a subject which they had too long lost sight of; and as it seemed obvious that the pressure of taxation, added to the evils occasioned by a transition from a state of war to a state of peace, formed the principal obstacle to

the development of our resources, and the expansion of the productive powers of industry, an opinion began to gain ground among the people, that the evils under which they suffered would never be materially mitigated, much less effectually cured, until a reform had been effected in our system of representation. One of the first symptoms or manifestations of the revival of an interest in this question was afforded by the Spafields meeting, which took place on the 2d December 1816; and although the tumult and violence in which that assemblage issued produced considerable alarm, and brought no little discredit on the cause, yet the defeat of government in the state prosecutions which followed, the continued pressure of distress, and, above all, the invincible truth that the people were inadequately represented, and that they experienced many of the evils of the worst government under one held forth as the best, served to overcome every disadvantage, and to keep alive the interest which had previously been excited. The Spafields riots were soon forgotten; and although no overt manifestations of any consequence took place during the two following years, still the conviction of the necessity of parliamentary reform continued to gain ground, and the cause began to find advocates in quarters where it had previously been regarded with indifference, if not with aversion. Reformers, though agreed in principle, were indeed much divided in regard to detail, or rather as to the extent to which the principle ought to be carried; and extreme doctrines began to be openly and boldly promulgated by many persons, who about the year 1819 received the appellation of radical reformers, and were at this time regarded with affected contempt, but with real terror, by the partizans of the existing system. But neither this diversity of views, nor the dread which many persons entertained or pretended of radical theories, retarded the progress of the cause, or prevented it from daily gaining new converts. On the 12th of July 1819 Birmingham ventured on the bold experiment of electing a legislative attorney to represent that great town in the House of Commons; and on the 16th of August following took place that memorable meeting at Manchester, already mentioned as accompanied with such disastrous results.

Such were the final acts of 1819, and of the reign of

¹ The following table exhibits, in a synoptical form, the times and results of the parliamentary discussion of the Catholic Question from 1805 to 1819 inclusive.

	House of Lords.			House of Commons.		
	For.	Against.	Majority.	For.	Against.	Majority.
1805..... Motion for taking into consideration the Petition of the Irish Roman Catholics	49	178	129	124	336	212
1806..... Not brought forward, in consequence of Mr Fox's advice.						
1807-8-9..... Not brought forward.						
1810..... Motion for a Committee of the whole House.....	68	184	86	109	313	104
1811..... The same.....	62	121	59	63	146	63
1812, April 21..... The same.....	102	174	72	215	306	91
July 1..... For taking it into consideration next year.....	135	126	1	235	106	129
1813, Feb. 25..... For a Committee of the whole House.....	264	324	40
March 8..... For leave to bring in a Bill for removing disqualifications, &c.....	106	110	67
May 11..... For a Select Committee.....	167	335	48
13..... A Motion against the Bill negatived.....	245	203	42
24..... A Motion (by the Speaker) for omitting the words in the bill, "To sit and vote in either House of Parliament".....	25	247	4
(Not debated in the Lords this year.)						
1814..... Not brought forward.						
1815..... For a Committee of the whole House.....	60	86	26	147	228	81
1816..... For consideration next year.....	69	73	4	141	172	31
1817..... For a Committee of the whole House.....	90	142	52	221	245	24
1818..... Not brought forward.						
1819..... For a Committee of the whole House.....	106	147	41	241	243	2

Reign of George III. The public conduct of this monarch, and the tendency of the political principles by which it was governed, the reader will judge of for himself, from the narrative of the events of his reign; as to his private and domestic character, it is admitted on all hands to have been highly respectable. He was distinguished for probity and a sense of religious obligation; in his habits and manners he displayed equal moderation and simplicity; his disposition, though unyielding, was benevolent; and both as a husband and a parent he was highly estimable. His intellectual faculties, originally of no high order, were permanently clouded by the constitutional malady which exhibited itself at an early period of his life; he adhered with invincible obstinacy to the maxims of government instilled into his mind by his early instructors; and he cherished an attachment to the church of which he was the head, that amounted to a species of blind and blundering bigotry. Yet he loved and patronized the fine arts, particularly music and painting; he collected a noble library; he had a taste for agriculture and some of the mechanic arts; and he was at once plain and unpretending in his manners; all which circumstances go very far in the case of a king. Hunting and the penal laws against the Catholics formed the things which, next to his own family, he was most attached to; and his scruples of conscience long stood in the way of national justice.

CHAP. XVIII.

REIGN OF GEORGE IV.

Accession of George IV.—Assembling of Parliament.—Message from the King.—Debates.—Parliament dissolved.—Cato Street Conspiracy.—Thistlewood and his Associates seized, convicted, and executed.—Discontent.—Fomented by Government Spies.—Severe Measures.—The Queen.—Aversion of the King.—She Lands at Dover.—Message from the King respecting the Conduct of the Queen.—Bill of Pains and Penalties introduced.—Proceedings thereupon.—Bill of Pains and Penalties thrown out.—Scene in the House of Commons.—Character of the Proceedings against the Queen.—State of the Country.—General Distress.—Parliamentary Proceedings.—Grampound Disfranchisement Bill.—Droits of the admiralty.—Brougham's Education Scheme.—Excitement connected with the Queen's Case.—Parliamentary Session of 1821.—Proceedings.—Circular Dispatch to our Missions Abroad.—Earl Grey's Motion.—Other Proceedings connected with it.—Motion relative to the Declaration issued by the Congress of Laybach.—Internal Affairs.—Mr Plunkett's Motion for a Committee on the Catholic Question carried.—Resolutions adopted.—Bills brought in.—Consolidated into one.—Passed by the Commons.—Thrown out in the Lords.—Parliamentary Reform.—Mr Lambton's Scheme.—Defeated by a manœuvre.—Resolutions proposed by Lord John Russell.—Other Projects.—Grampound disfranchised.—Mr Hume's efforts in favour of Retrenchment.—Attempts to humanize the Criminal Code defeated.—Constitutional Association.—Distress of the Agricultural and Manufacturing Population.—Consequent Proceedings in Parliament.—Coronation.—Death of Queen Caroline.—State of Affairs at the commencement of 1822.—Session of Parliament.—Ireland.—Insurrection Act, and Suspension of Habeas Corpus.—Other Measures of Severity.—Insurrections in the West Indies.—Unpopularity of the Lord-Lieutenant.—Reform.—Lord John Russell's Motion.—Mr Brougham's proposed Resolution respecting the Influence of the Crown.—Burgh Reform.—Mr Canning's Bill for the Admission of Catholic Peers passed by the Commons but thrown out in the Lords.—Finance.—Retrenching it.—Reduction of the Navy Five per Cent.—Scheme concerning the Naval and Military Pensions carried, but rendered abortive.—Measures for the Relief of the existing Distress.—Commercial Affairs.—Repeal of the Navigation Laws.—Death of Lord Londonderry.—Changes in the Administration.—New Government.—Reform.—Continental Relations.—Congress of Verona.—Affairs of Spain.—French Invasion and Overthrow of the Constitution.—Appointment of Commercial Agents to the New South

American States.—Financial Operations.—Reduction of Taxes.—Sir James Mackintosh's Resolutions.—Acts for the Amendment of the Criminal Law.—Ireland.—Catholic Claims.—Colonial Affairs.—Resolutions in regard to the Treatment of Slaves.—Government Circular.—Character of Mr Canning's Policy.—Independence of the South American States recognized.—Measures for unfettering Commercial Intercourse.—Combination Laws repealed.—Other Measures of a similar kind.—Reciprocity System.—Legal Reform.—Financial Arrangements.—Ireland.—The Catholic Association.—The Catholic Relief Bill.—Conduct of the West India Planters.—Proceedings in Canada and at the Cape of Good Hope.—Domestic Affairs.—Meeting of Parliament.—Catholic Association.—Bill for suppressing it.—Debates on this subject.—Association reconstituted.—Bill for the Relief of the Catholics introduced.—The Catholic Relief Bill.—Declaration of the Duke of York.—The Bill passed by the Commons, but thrown out in the Lords.—State of Ireland.—Report of the Committee of the Lords.—Other Proceedings.—Bill for the Protection of Masters and Workmen against Combinations.—Modification of the Colonial System carried by Mr Huskisson.—Details.—Reduction of Taxation.—Consequences of Excessive Speculation of 1826.—General Panic and Distress.—Affairs of 1826.—Meeting of Parliament.—State of the Country.—Measures for alleviating the general Distress.—Small Note Circulation.—Opposition of Scotland to the Destruction of its Small Note Currency.—Successful.—Branch Banks established.—Advances on Deposits of Goods and other Securities.—Discussions as to the Cause of the late Panic.—Emigration Committee.—Petitions from the Silk Manufacturers and Shipowners.—Mr Huskisson's triumphant Reply.—System of Free Trade.—Budget.—Discussion thereon.—Termination of the Burmese War.—Origin and Progress of this Contest.—Dissolution of Parliament.—General Election.—Effects produced in Ireland by the Catholic Association.—Deficient Crop.—Scarcity.—Order in Council for relieving the Distress.—Meeting of Parliament.—Lord Liverpool struck with Apoplexy.—Mr Canning's Interviews with the King.—He receives the Royal Commands to reconstitute a Cabinet.—Consequent Negotiations.—Combination against Mr Canning.—Cabinet formed.—Mr Canning joined by the Whigs.—His Ministry irresistible.—Mr Canning's Death.—His Character as an Orator and Statesman.—Succeeded by Lord Goderich.—Dissolution of his Government.—Parliamentary Session of 1826-27.—Corn Laws.—Resolutions.—New Bill passed by the Commons.—Abandoned in consequence of the Duke of Wellington's Amendment in the Lords.—A temporary Bill passed.—Other Questions.—Interference in behalf of Portugal.—Catholic Emancipation.—Lost by a Majority of four.—Duke of Wellington's Administration.—Domination of Mr Huskisson.—Foreign Policy of Britain.—State of our Relations with other Powers.—Portugal.—Greece.—Turkey.—Treaty of London.—Consequent Interference in the Contest between the Ottoman Porte and the Greeks.—Battle of Navarino.—Results of this Action.—Expressions applied to it by the New Cabinet.—Finance Committee.—Government Annulment.—Error in regard to them.—Settlement of the Corn Laws by Compromise.—State of the Common Law Courts.—Efforts of Mr Brougham.—Repeal of the Corporation and Test Acts.—Sir F. Burrell's Motion on the Catholic Claims carried by a Majority of six.—Motion in the House of Commons in favour of the Resolution of the Commons negatived.—Proceedings of the Catholics.—Mr Fitzgerald defeated in Clare.—Mr O'Connell returned for Clare.—Re-assembling of the Catholic Association in its original form.—Proceedings.—Pledges to be proposed to Candidates.—Party Feuds among the Peasantry.—Husks.—Clubs.—General Organization.—Mr Dawson's Speech at Derry.—Protestant Ascendancy.—Measures.—Orange Lodges.—Brunswick Clubs.—Divisions in the Cabinet on the Catholic Question.—Opposition of the King.—Duke of Wellington's Letter to Mr Curtis.—Recall of the Marquis of Coningsby.—Meeting of Parliament.—Catholic Question recommended in the Speech from the Throne.—Catholic Association denounced.—Bill introduced for putting it down.—Association dissolves itself.—Bill passed.—Committee on the Civil Disabilities affecting Catholics.—Mr Peel's Speech in the House.—Necessity of the Measure proposed for the relief of the Catholics.—Character of the Debates.—Large Majority in the Committee.—Discussion in the Lords.—Relative Division in 1828 and 1829.—Royal Assent given to the Relief Bill.—Disfranchisement of the Irish Freeholder.—Injustice of this Measure.—Parliament prorogued.—State of the Country.—Character of the Administration.—Parliamentary Reform.—Assembling of Parliament in 1830.—Sir James Graham's Resolution.—Va-

Reign of
George IV.

rious Motions and Proceedings.—Cry for Reform daily increasing.—Death and Character of George the Fourth.

George III. closed his career on the 29th of January 1820. He had been so long withdrawn from the eyes of the world, that the event could scarcely be called the termination of a reign. The prince who succeeded him on the throne had virtually discharged all the offices of king for nearly eight years. The same line of policy continued to be persevered in, as nearly as events permitted; the same ministers continued to manage the affairs of state; the prosperity of the country received no sudden shock nor increase; and public opinion went on to form itself, without experiencing any sudden impulse. The customary bell, which announced by its monotonous clang that a king had been gathered to his fathers; the sorrow, real or affected, of personal friends; a slight alteration in the tenor of writs; and some unimportant changes in the arrangements of office, were the only indications that a new reign had commenced.

The ministers, as a matter of form, resigned their places the day after the death of the old king, but were all of them immediately reinstated. It is the law and custom of the country, that if no parliament be in existence at the death of the king, the last immediately revives, and continues to sit for six months, unless dissolved at an earlier period by the new monarch. If a parliament, however, be in existence but not sitting at the time, it assembles with the least possible delay. The House of Commons met, on the present occasion, about noon of the 31st of January, and the Lords a little later in the same day. At this meeting no business was transacted beyond the simple ceremony of taking the oaths of allegiance. Some additional members were sworn next day, when the house adjourned till the 17th of February. This was done in conformity with the uniform practice of parliament on the demise of a king to suspend its operations until after the funeral.

On the day appointed both houses again met; and by this time ministers had fully resolved upon the course they were to pursue. Messages from the king were presented by Lord Liverpool to the Peers, and by Lord Castlereagh to the Commons. The tenor of both was the same. The king felt persuaded that the House of Lords, and his faithful Commons, sympathized with the late loss which he and the nation had sustained. He reminded them that the melancholy event imposed upon him the necessity of summoning a new parliament within a limited period; intimated his opinion, that in the present state of public sentiment it was expedient to take this step without delay; and recommended to the Commons to adopt, and to the Lords to concur in, such measures as might be found necessary to provide for the public exigencies during the interval which must elapse between the dissolution of the old and the opening of a new parliament.

The reasons assigned by ministers for thus precipitating the assembling of a new parliament were in themselves quite satisfactory. The quantity of business before the legislative bodies was so great, that it could not possibly be completed within the prescribed period. The assizes would take place during its continuance, and render the absence of many members necessary; while the cares and bustle of an approaching election would distract the attention of all. Notwithstanding the weight of these arguments, the opposition discovered, or affected to discover, another reason for the resolution which had been taken of dissolving parliament immediately. The unpardonable assault upon the people at Manchester during the preceding year, and the subsequent policy of ministers, had deeply exasperated a large body of the lower orders; and the

violence of their language had added to the ministerial party, already numerous among the wealthier portion of the community, all the timid and wavering adherents of opposition. That party saw, therefore, in the attempt to precipitate a general election, the desire of ministry to obtain a parliament returned at a moment when the influence of fear had materially swelled their majority, and secured, by the prospect of a long career, against that popular influence which uniformly exercises greater control over the members in proportion as an appeal to their constituents approaches.

In the desultory opposition, however, which was offered to the course recommended in the king's message, Mr Brougham was the only speaker who ventured to take this ground. The rest of his party, both in the Lords and the Commons, discussed the question as one of form and privilege. Lords Lansdown, Grosvenor, and Carnarvon, in the upper house, and Mr Tierney in the lower, while they admitted the dissolution of parliament to be regular and constitutional, objected to the recommendation to provide for it, as savouring of dictation, and infringing the liberty of the legislature. The ministerial party, however, strengthened as it had been by its accession of numbers, was too strong to be resisted. Bills were introduced, continuing the mutiny act and the marine mutiny act until the 24th of June. Certain sums of money were voted towards defraying the expenses of the army and the extraordinary civil charges. And in addition to these, two hundred thousand pounds were granted "towards satisfying such annuities, pensions, or other payments, as would have been payable out of the consolidated fund of Great Britain, or out of the civil list, in case the demise of his late majesty had not taken place before the 5th of April 1820." This grant is in no other way remarkable than as having afforded the first opportunity of introducing a discussion which was destined to engross almost the whole attention of parliament during that year. The opposition, understanding that in this sum of two hundred thousand the queen's allowance was included, made a stand to have an express provision made for her. The resolutions were, however, agreed to without any alteration in their form. When carried to the House of Lords, they experienced some further opposition from Lord Lauderdale, on the plea that the power which had been assumed by the House of Commons, of appropriating the supplies and authorizing the payment of pensions otherwise than by the constitutional method of passing the appropriation bill, was an infringement on their lordships' privileges. This difficulty was met by Lord Liverpool, who moved an amendment, "that this house, from the state of public business, acquiesce in the resolutions of the Commons, although no act may be passed to give them effect." These necessary arrangements having been completed, parliament was dissolved in the usual form on the 29th of February, and a new one summoned to meet on the 23d of April.

In the mean time government was beginning to learn by experience the effects of attempting to repress by arbitrary enactments the public expression of popular feeling, in the growth of those dark and sanguinary plots which are ever the consequence of violent attempts to stifle complaint. Arthur Thistlewood, a man of respectable connections, and originally of some property, but who, by his own profligate habits, had been reduced to a state of abject poverty, entered into a conspiracy, with a few others of like desperate fortunes, to overturn the government. Thistlewood's plan was to seize the opportunity of the late king's funeral, when it was expected that all the military would be engaged at Windsor, to make themselves masters of London, and plunder the shops. Having, by the license they held out, attracted a sufficient

Reign of George IV. force of the needy and discontented to rally round them, he proposed to establish a provisional government, and send to the sea-ports, to prevent all gentlemen from leaving England without passports. The more sanguinary brutality of his uneducated companions in part overruled him. It was resolved to assassinate the ministers, when assembled at a cabinet dinner at Lord Harrowby's. While one party effected the massacre, others were to seize the two pieces of cannon in Gray's-inn Lane, and the six pieces in the artillery ground. emissaries at Hyde Park were to intercept any messenger dispatched to Windsor. A body of conspirators were to cross the Thames and take the telegraph, to prevent any communication with Woolwich. The Mansion House was fixed upon as the seat of the provisional government. A few disbanded soldiers had been induced to join in the plot; a motley assortment of arms had been provided; and proclamations were written out in the name of the provisional government, for the purpose of being stuck up on the walls.

The conspirators were as deficient in caution as their plot was in any reasonable likelihood of success. They were surprised in the garret or hay-loft in Cato Street where their meetings were held, on the evening of the 23d of February, the same on which the massacre of the ministers was to have been perpetrated. After a desperate resistance, in which one police-officer was killed, and several severely wounded, the greater part of the band were apprehended. Thistlewood and some others were not secured till next day. A few of the more cowardly turned king's evidence, and the guilt of the conspirators was clearly established. Five of them, Thistlewood the originator of the plot, Brunt his lieutenant, Ingers, who was to have been secretary to the provisional government, Tidd, and Davidson, a man of colour, were ordered for execution, and suffered the penalty annexed to treason on the 29th of April.

The most diligent inquiries of government could not discover any ramifications of the plot. Every thing that has since transpired strengthens the belief that these desperadoes stood alone. Thistlewood had, a short time before his arrestment, made a tour through the manufacturing districts of England and Scotland. There can be no doubt that he had endeavoured to engage the radical party in some undertaking equally violent with that for which he suffered, but more extensive. About the close of 1819, or early in 1820, a messenger was dispatched to Thistlewood from Leeds, to assure him that he need look for no assistance from the country in his attempt. The opinion of his want of success in the attempt to stir up the working classes to co-operate with him, is further corroborated by the coarse manner in which he affirmed to one of his associates, that "no one who was worth ten pounds was worth any thing for the good of this country."

Still, although even the discontented portion of the community turned with disgust from projects of assassination, there was much in the disposition of the lower orders to afford grounds for apprehension to the ministers under whose auspices Castlereagh's acts had been introduced and passed into a law. Throughout the manufacturing districts the working classes were associated in unions. The writer of this sketch remembers in the autumn of the preceding year to have accidentally overheard a discussion held by a pretty numerous body of weavers in the neighbourhood of Glasgow. The prevailing sentiment seemed to be, that the interests of the rich were diametrically opposed to those of the poor; and the conviction was pretty generally expressed, that a time was near at hand when the relative positions of the parties would be inverted. In this state of affairs spies were liberally dispersed through the disaffected districts; and these men,

Reign of George IV. whether with or without the encouragement of ministers, endeavoured to break the force of public discontent by encouraging partial explosions. In the course of the month of March, considerable bodies of the people rose in arms in Lancashire and Yorkshire. These demonstrations, by alarming the holders of property, attached them more firmly to government. The punishment of the insurgents cast a damp over the spirits of the disaffected; and, to strengthen the impression, the most severe measure authorized by the late laws was likewise awarded to every man who expressed in strong language his disapprobation of the policy of ministers.

The events to which we have hitherto adverted served either to indicate the strength of the ministry or to increase it. The elections to the new parliament left them much in the same position in which they were at the dissolution of the old. But a discussion was impending over them, which threatened to task their powers to the utmost. The dispute between the Prince and Princess of Wales was a matter of very secondary importance compared with that between the king and queen of England. The hatred which George IV. entertained for his consort was invincible. He had relinquished his early principles and most intimate friends, rather than struggle with a party which he found firmly established in power; he had conformed to the system of policy they had adopted, without suggesting one modification; he was contented that the course of national exertions should be controlled and guided by other minds; but his passive disposition left him the moment the question was urged of conceding even the external resemblance of respect to the queen. Her name was omitted in the liturgy; the utmost anxiety was displayed to avoid, if possible, making any parliamentary provision for her as queen; the common civility of announcing to her the death of her father-in-law, who was moreover her blood relation, was not observed; and she was given to understand, that if she attempted to return to England, she would be instantly visited with a bill of pains and penalties. But her majesty stood upon her rights; and after several ineffectual negotiations on the part of those friends of the royal disputants, who feared the consequences of a public agitation of the question at issue between them, she landed at Dover in the month of June. Her journey to London was a triumphant progress; and her reception there by the populace most enthusiastic.

On the 6th of June, the Earl of Liverpool in the Peers, and Lord Castlereagh in the Commons, presented a message from the king, recommending to the immediate attention of these bodies "certain papers respecting the conduct of her majesty since her departure from the country." The Lords, after slight discussion, referred the communication to a secret committee. The same course was adopted by the Commons, but after a more violent debate. Her majesty's friends had in that house touched upon the subject even before the dissolution of the old parliament. Lord Archibald Hamilton had complained of the unconstitutional dictation to the church of Scotland on the point of praying for the queen. The resolutions by which a temporary supply was voted to the king had not been allowed to pass without the question being asked, in what manner the interests of the queen were to be secured. Now the storm burst in its full strength on the heads of ministers. Not a few members declared, that without examining witnesses, they were convinced of her majesty's innocence by the line of conduct which the government had pursued.

The guilt or innocence of Queen Caroline is a question of very subordinate importance in an outline like the present. It deserves attention merely because of the influence it exerted upon the public mind, and its effects upon the subsequent course of events. Now that the excitement of

Reign of George IV. innocence; but if ever suspicious conduct was susceptible of an apology, it was in her case. Viewed as a private individual, the king had no right to complain of her behaviour. The allegation that the honour of the country was at stake, was a transparent disguise, through which his obstinate indulgence of a private pique, at the hazard of national tranquillity, was clearly discernible; while the ministers, who were service enough to pander to this royal self-will, disgraced themselves for ever; and that this was the feeling of the wealthy, as it was of the poorer classes, is evident from the narrow majorities which an administration so strong on every other question commanded in behalf of their bill against the queen.

A brief sketch of the proceedings in the House of Lords will suffice to show the character of the prosecution. On the 5th of July Lord Liverpool presented a bill of pains and penalties against the queen. Her petition to be heard by counsel was presented the same evening, and refused. On the 6th her majesty again petitioned the house, requesting, that if their Lordships were resolved to refuse her a hearing at that stage, and likewise to refuse a list of the witnesses to be adduced against her, they would at least allow her counsel to state at their bar the nature of her claims. This request was in so far complied with, that Messrs Brougham and Denman were heard relative to the mode and manner of the proceedings to be had upon the bill, and the time when these proceedings should take place. Their arguments were ineffectual. A list of witnesses was refused. The bill was ordered to be read a second time, and evidence to be led during its second reading. The proceedings commenced on the 17th of August, and were continued, with scarcely any intermission, till the 4th of November. On that day the Lords resolved that the bill should be read a second time, by a majority of twenty-eight, in a house of two hundred and eighteen. The divorce clause was warmly attacked in the committee, but finally retained by a majority of sixty-seven in a house of a hundred and ninety-one. When their Lordships came to divide upon the question of the third reading, it was still carried in the affirmative, a hundred and eight voting for, and ninety-nine against it. Lord Liverpool immediately announced, that, looking to the narrow majority and the temper of the country, he had come to the determination not to proceed further with the measure. He accordingly moved that the bill do pass that day six months.

During the trial repeated attempts had been made by the House of Commons to put a stop to the proceedings. Ministers, unable to parry the reiterated and vehement attacks directed against them, had recourse to repeated adjournments. No sooner had the bill been thrown out than the House of Lords adjourned to the 23d of November, to which day the House of Commons at that time also stood adjourned. There was a call of the house for that day, and Mr Brougham having communicated to the speaker that a message would be sent down from the queen, suggested at the same time his taking the chair at one o'clock, in order that there might be an opportunity of receiving the message before the meeting of the Lords. At one o'clock about a hundred members, chiefly of the opposition party, were present, but the speaker did not appear. He was understood to be closeted with Lord Castlereagh. At length he entered the house, and exactly at two the reading of prayers concluded. Mr Denman immediately rose and announced that he held in his hand a message which the queen had commanded him to present to the house. Before he could proceed the deputy usher of the black rod entered. His appearance was the signal for uproar. "Mr Denman!" "Withdraw!" were vociferated from fifty throats.

The usher summoned the house to attend the lords commissioners in the House of Peers. Amid the surrounding clamour he was inaudible; nevertheless the speaker rose, and, accompanied by Lord Castlereagh and the chancellor of the exchequer, followed, amid cries of "Shame!" both from the opposition and ministerial members. The speaker on his return declared the house adjourned to the 23d of January.

Respecting the rank injustice of the proceedings against the queen there cannot now be two opinions. She was attacked by an anomalous procedure, which was neither trial nor bill of divorce. The pains and penalties inflicted by the bill were such as could not have been extended to any other English subject. The law of England guarded every other woman in the kingdom against such a measure. Again, by adopting the mode of procedure by bill, her prosecutors escaped the necessity of furnishing her with a list of witnesses, and thus crippled her defence. Lastly, by allowing the measure to drop after the third reading had been carried, the ministers clearly established that the personal degradation of the queen was all they sought for, and that the vindication of the national honour was a mere pretext. In what other instance was that iron administration known to pause out of respect to public opinion? The effect of the proceedings upon the power of the ministry was twofold. It distracted the attention of the country for a time, and men ceased to brood so incessantly over their distress; but, on the other hand, it swelled the ranks of opposition, and embittered its tone of feeling.

Amid these stormy discussions, in which the remotest districts keenly participated, the moral interests of the country were comparatively neglected. Still the universal stagnation of business, and the consequent suffering of all classes, did not admit of their being entirely neglected. A petition from the merchants of London, presented by Mr Baring, elicited an animated and instructive discussion of the causes and remedies of mercantile distress, but without leading to any result. The subject was resumed on the 11th, when a petition was presented from Birmingham, but with as little effect. On the 16th Lord Stanhope called the attention of the Lords to the distress of the working classes, and moved for a committee "to inquire into the best means of giving employment to the poor, especially in the manufacturing districts." Lord Liverpool exposed in the most lucid manner the visionary nature of the schemes suggested by Lord Stanhope, and the motion was negatived without a division. The Marquis of Lansdown's motion on the 29th, for a committee to inquire into the means of extending the foreign commerce of the country, which was agreed to, drew from Lord Liverpool an exposition of his views of commercial policy. He insisted upon the necessity of adopting a comprehensive system, and adhering to it; remarked that the fewer laws there were, the better; disapproved of the views adopted by those who represented the interests of the farmer and the manufacturer as adverse; and, after propounding many excellent principles, and protesting against their practical application, came to the conclusion that there was no harm in inquiry, but great danger in action. On the motion of Mr Baring, a similar committee was appointed by the Commons on the 5th of June. The first report of Lord Lansdown's committee was presented on the 3d of July. It was confined to an inquiry into the state of the timber trade, and an investigation of the means of its improvement. A motion made by Lord Milton the same evening in the House of Commons, for repealing the duty on the importation of foreign wool, was negatived without a division.

The distress was not confined to the manufacturers; for the table of the House of Commons groaned beneath a

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Castlereagh had by this time succeeded, on the death of his father, to the paternal title) opposed to this motion his never-failing answer, that it was unnecessary. "The declaration of the 19th of January had announced to the world our dissent from the principles acted upon at Troppau and Laybach, and no good could result from engaging in a war of state papers." Mr Wortley's motion was accordingly negatived. The only other discussions respecting the foreign policy of Britain which occurred during the year 1821 were, an address from both houses of parliament to the throne on the state of the slave-trade, agreed to without the sanction of ministers, but likewise without any active opposition on their part; and Mr Hume's motion for inquiry into the conduct of Sir Thomas Maitland, the lord high commissioner of the Ionian Islands, which was negatived.

The speech glanced at the internal affairs of the nation in a manner quite as unsatisfactory as that in which it treated foreign relations. Several branches of manufactures and commerce were said to have improved, and the amount of revenue to have increased, avowedly from new taxes. The speech concluded with an expression of confidence in the popular attachment to the king's person and government, and an exhortation to preserve respect for established institutions. The opposition, still much inferior in numbers to the ministerial adherents, but strong in its reliance upon the popular feeling, and encouraged by the wavering allegiance of the country gentlemen, whose sufferings had led them to doubt the infallibility of the party to which they had hitherto adhered, made no hostile demonstrations upon the moving of the address, which, as usual, was a mere echo of the speech. It scarcely allowed, however, a day to elapse before it commenced a series of attacks upon the whole system of ministerial policy. The session of 1821 was one of unintermitting hostilities directed against ministers in every department, the administration preserving in almost every instance the attitude of defence.

The first question started by the members of opposition was one of constitutional reform. With considerable tact they selected one, upon the merits of which the ministerial phalanx, nay the cabinet itself, was known to be divided in opinion, namely, that of Catholic emancipation. By this arrangement they secured a prospect of disturbing, in some measure, the harmony of their adversaries, and at the same time exposed themselves to less unanimous hostility in the opening of their campaign. Mr Plunkett moved, on the 25th of February, that the state of the laws affecting Roman Catholics be taken into consideration by a committee of the whole house. Mr Peel stood forward as the champion of the party opposed to concession, and the members of that party mustered in strength; but the motion was carried by a majority of six. On the 2d of March the house accordingly resolved itself into a committee for the purpose of taking into consideration the Catholic claims. Mr Plunkett was prepared to prosecute his advantage, and submitted six resolutions for the adoption of the house. Their purport was, that such parts of the oaths required to be taken by persons qualifying for the enjoyment of offices, franchises, and civil rights, as merely disclaimed a belief in the speculative religious opinions of the Roman Catholics, ought to be repealed; that the word "spiritual," which occurred in the oaths of supremacy, should be declared to import merely "that the kings of this realm should govern all estates and degrees committed to their charge by God, whether they be ecclesiastical or temporal, and restrain, with the civil sword, the stubborn and evil doer;" that the act of repeal and explanation should be accompanied with such exceptions and regulations as might be found necessary for preserv-

Reign of George IV. ing the Protestant succession to the crown, and maintaining inviolate the Protestant episcopal church of Ireland and the church of Scotland. The resolutions were agreed to *pro forma*, and leave given to bring in a bill founded on them. Mr Peel declared his determination to oppose the measure in all its stages. Mr Plunkett digested his scheme into two bills, the one containing the civil, the other the spiritual arrangements, which it was proposed to pass into a law. They were read a first time, without discussion, on the 7th of March. An attempt was made on the part of the opponents to concession, aided by some discontented members of the Catholic church, to represent the measure as odious to the class of the community whose enfranchisement it contemplated, but without success. Various amendments, calculated to defeat the object in view, were proposed by Messrs Bankes, Peel, and Goulburn, but successfully combated. Sir John Newport, when moving the commitment of the bills on the 26th of March, gave notice of his intention to move their consolidation; and on the 28th his motion was submitted and agreed to. The consolidated bill, notwithstanding the strenuous opposition which it encountered from the high church party within the house, and latterly from the Catholic clergy without, passed the Commons on the 2d of April by a majority of nineteen. It was accordingly carried to the House of Lords and read a first time without any debate, but ultimately thrown out on the 16th of April, upon the motion that it be read a second time, by a majority of thirty-nine.

The support given by the house to this effort for the relief of the Catholics, and the loud cry of the country for parliamentary reform, encouraged opposition to moot that question, upon which every rational hope of amelioration in church and state depended. Mr Lambton was first in the field. He submitted a plan of reform to the consideration of the House, the very evening that the Catholic relief bill was rejected by the Lords. The principal features of the measure which he contemplated were, the limitation of the duration of parliament to three years; the extension of the elective franchise to all persons possessing property, however small in value, which contributed to taxation; and the abolition of rotten boroughs. The attendance was thin and the debate languid, although adjourned on the first evening. It was resumed on the 17th, but abruptly terminated by a manoeuvre of the ministerial party. Mr Lambton and his friends were rather late of appearing, and their antagonists taking advantage of their absence, instead of prosecuting the discussion, called for the vote, and thus defeated the wish of the reformers to go into committee. Such a stratagem was more worthy of a knot of mischievous school-boys than of men deliberating upon the interests of the empire; yet the skilful employment of the result by the ministerial press succeeded for a considerable time in alienating the public confidence from Mr Lambton, and neutralising his utility in parliament. The opposition were disappointed by this result, but not defeated. Lord John Russell re-introduced the subject on the 9th of May, in a more indefinite shape; several members having declared, on the occasion of Mr Lambton's motion, that they were ready to entertain the general question of reform, although they objected to the specific measure proposed. Lord John proposed for the adoption of the house four resolutions, declaratory of the corrupt state of the elective system; the necessity of extending the elective franchise to wealthy and populous places hitherto unrepresented; the propriety of appointing a select committee to consider the best measure of effecting this innovation; and the expediency of referring to the same committee the consideration of the best mode of proceeding against such boroughs as should in future be convicted of bribery

and corruption. The first resolution was lost by a majority of thirty-one, in a house consisting of two hundred and seventy-nine members; the others were negatived without a division. The last attempt made during the session for the attainment of a general reform, was Mr H. G. Bennet's motion for leave to bring in a bill for the better securing of the independence of parliament. His plan was to continue to the great officers of government their seats in the house, but to exclude clerks and underlings. Of fifty-one persons holding seats in the house at the pleasure of government he proposed to exclude twenty-nine. This motion was negatived like the rest. On the 10th of May, Lord Archibald Hamilton made an attempt to induce the house to pledge itself that it would next session take into consideration the state of representation in the counties of Scotland, but without success. The only instance in which the cause of reform was at all successful during the lapse of this session, was the passing of the bill for the disfranchisement of Grampound. Even this slender victory was incomplete in itself. The bill, as agreed to by the Commons, transferred the franchise which Grampound was declared to have forfeited to Leeds, vesting the electoral qualification in all the inhabitants renting houses at £20 yearly. Lord Liverpool moved in the House of Lords, that, instead of giving two representatives to Leeds, the whole county of York should in future be allowed the privilege of returning four. The amendment was agreed to; and the House of Commons decided that the measure, even in its mutilated state, was not to be rejected.

While these two great constitutional questions were thus keenly contested, Mr Hume kept up a continual fire upon the ministerial system of finance. He opened his battery with the first introduction of the estimates. When the army estimates were introduced, he directed the attention of the house to the enormous augmentation of the numbers of the army on the peace establishment which had taken place since 1799, and the corresponding increase of expenditure; and proposed that the resolution recommended by the finance committee of 1817 of approximating the military establishment as near as possible to that of 1799, should be adopted. The motion was negatived. Nothing daunted by defeat, Mr Hume returned to the attack on the production of the navy estimates. His motion was similar to that which he had brought forward in regard to the army; and, resting upon the same principles, it was not pressed to a division. A motion by the same gentleman, on the production of the ordnance estimates, in which he urged, in addition to a statement similar to those made on the former occasions, a transgression by this department of the orders of the house, was equally unfortunate. In his resolutions respecting a possible saving in the collection of the land and assessed taxes, he was more successful. The ministers did not dare to meet him, as they had the year before, with a direct negative; but suggested a reference to a committee, in which Mr Hume acquiesced. The chancellor of the exchequer brought forward the budget on the 1st of June. The amount of supply he estimated at £20,018,200; of ways and means at £20,031,569. He sought to make it appear that a reduction of ten millions had been effected on the national expenditure since 1820. Mr Hume was again at his post, and recapitulated, with new illustrations and calculations, the arguments he had already adduced in opposition to each particular estimate. He concluded by moving an address to the king, requesting that his majesty would be pleased to direct a minute investigation into the expense of the management and collection of the revenue; a careful revision and adjustment of all salaries and allowances; and the exercise of a vigilant superintendence over the expenditure of the country,

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especially in everything connected with the military establishment. The ministry, in order to avoid the disagreeable necessity of adopting a suggestion from Mr Hume, moved an amendment, differing from the original motion in nothing but its more courtly tone, and its vagueness of expression. A resolution similar to Mr Hume's was submitted to the Peers by Lord Darnley on the 2d of July, and evaded in the same manner. During the time that this extended plan of financial reform continued to be pressed upon a reluctant ministry, the country gentlemen were busy striving to shift as large a proportion of the national burdens off their own shoulders as possible. Mr Western attempted to introduce a bill for repealing the additional duties imposed on malt in 1819; and Mr Curwen succeeded in obtaining a repeal of the tax imposed on horses employed in agriculture.

All attempts to shake the attachment of the majorities in both houses to the ministry, or give such a voice to the nation as might deprive its supporters of their seats, having failed, the ameliorations in our legal institutions so warmly desired by all friends of humanity and justice made but slow progress. Their bigoted adversaries still maintained an ascendancy in the cabinet. Sir James Mackintosh brought forward three bills—for abrogating capital punishment in certain cases of forgery, and in cases of stealing in dwelling-houses, and on navigable rivers. The first, after having been thrice read in the Commons, was thrown out, in consequence of a manoeuvre of Lord Londonderry on the question that it do pass. The second and third were carried through the lower house, but thrown out in the Lords. Another attempt to humanize the criminal code was made by Mr Martin of Galway, who introduced a bill for allowing the benefit of counsel to persons accused of felony; but on the second reading it was negatived without a division. Mr Kennedy directed the attention of the house to the faulty mode of constituting juries in Scotland; but the hostility of government and the Scottish law officers to any improvement was so marked, that he forsook to press his measure for remedying the defect. Sir John Newport submitted a series of resolutions to the House of Commons, complaining of the dilatory proceedings of the commission appointed in 1815 to inquire into the state of the English courts of justice. The resolutions were negatived, the ministers taking upon themselves the defence of their nominees. Although the party in power thus strenuously opposed in parliament every modification of the laws, their adherents out of doors hesitated not to appoint officers not recognised by the constitution, to watch over the strenuous enforcement of the law of libel. An association was formed in London on the 12th of December 1820 for the purpose of suppressing seditious publications; and bills of indictment were preferred by the law agent of this body against several booksellers. Mr Brougham took an opportunity of directing the attention of the house to its proceedings; insisting strongly on the dangerous character of men associated to prosecute individuals selected at the discretion of political prejudice. He contended, likewise, that such a union had a tendency to destroy the impartiality of juries. The subject was again brought before the house by Mr S. Whitbread. No conclusion was come to; but the society, after being thus held up to public reprobation, languished and died.

The attention of the house was this year again directed to the continued distress both of the agricultural and manufacturing population. The committee appointed in 1820 to investigate the mode of striking the corn averages, reported immediately upon the sitting of parliament. In consequence of the recommendation contained in the report, a bill was introduced on the 26th of February, by which considerable changes were effected in the then ex-

isting system. Their general object was clearly to calculate the averages so as to diminish them in apparent amount; in other words, to raise the importation price. Not contented with this arrangement, the country gentlemen made another and successful attempt on the 7th of March, to obtain the appointment of a committee to take into consideration the petitions relative to the distress of the agricultural interest. The committee reported, on the 18th of June, that the agricultural suffering was mainly owing to the change in the currency; that it would decrease as contracts, and prices, and wages of labour, assimilated themselves to the new value of money; and that considerable progress had already been made towards this desirable consummation. All interference on the part of the legislature was deprecated. Mr Curwen suggested the imposition of a duty on the transfer of stock, and Mr Baring adverted to the expediency of allowing the bank to pay either in gold or silver; but neither of these gentlemen pressed the adoption of any measure. With a view to alleviate the depressed state of commerce and manufactures, committees were appointed by both houses to inquire into the regulations affecting our foreign trade, and how far benefit might accrue from modifying them. The Lords' committee reported on the 11th of April, confining its attention to the advantages likely to be derived from an extension of the Asiatic trade. All the suggestions of the report were consequently in a great measure at the mercy of the East India Company. The report submitted to the Commons by their committee related to the intercourse with the Baltic, and was followed up by a resolution declaring the expediency of diminishing the preferences given to the colonial timber trade over that from the north of Europe, allowing that of Russia and Prussia superior advantages over the timber of Norway. This paltry advance in liberality was with difficulty carried into a law. A more important step, suggested by the committee, was the leave granted by the house to introduce bills for the amendment of the navigation laws; a measure which was allowed to stand over till next session.

While these important debates were agitating the legislature and the country, the monarch was engrossed with the childish pagantry of his coronation, and pleasure excursions to Ireland and Hanover. All three entailed a great expense upon the country, and not one of them was rendered conducive to any useful purpose. Devolving upon other shoulders the cares of state, George IV. would have led a life of unalloyed ease, but for that thorn in his side, the queen. Her safety once assured, and an allowance settled upon her by parliament, she naturally ceased to have any interest for the public, which had been led to espouse her cause from a conviction of the injustice with which she had been treated, not from any personal attachment, which her character was but ill qualified to inspire. She made one last desperate effort to regain her notoriety, which was rapidly subsiding at the time of the coronation; but failing in her attempt, she was seized with such chagrin that she soon afterwards died. Her death in some measure re-awakened the national sympathy; and an attempt on the part of the ministers to interfere with an expression of respect to her remains increased the unpopularity of the sovereign.

The aspect of affairs at the commencement of 1822 was stormy in the extreme. The distresses of the agriculturists continued unmitigated; and meetings of farmers and landholders, clamorous for assistance, were held in every county. One called for corn laws, another for the abolition of tithes, and another for a reduction of the national debt. Each thought his own remedy sufficient, and refused to listen to the suggestions of others. In Ireland matters were still worse. The distress there was even more

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Under these inauspicious circumstances parliament assembled on the 5th of February. In the House of Commons, the ministerial party, which had never quite recovered the secession of Mr Canning from office at the time of the queen's trial, was strengthened by the appointment of Mr Peel to be home secretary. In both houses its numbers had been increased by an amalgamation with the Grenville party, some of whom accepted of office.

The theme most emphatically dwelt upon in the speech from the throne, and first submitted to the attention of parliament by ministers, was the state of Ireland. Lord Castlereagh and his coadjutors had only one remedy for the disturbances of that country—coercion. Two bills were immediately introduced into the Commons, and with the most indecent haste hurried both through that house and the Peers, receiving the royal assent on the 11th of February. The first contained a re-enactment of the insurrection act, empowering any two justices to cause an extraordinary session of the peace to be held, and the justices, when assembled in such session, to the number of seven in a county and three in a city, to signify to the lord-lieutenant their opinion that the county was in a state of disturbance, assigning at the same time their reasons, and praying him to proclaim it. The proclamation which the lord-lieutenant was empowered to issue warned the inhabitants of the disturbed district after a certain day to remain within their houses between sunset and sunrise. After that day any justice of peace, or any person authorized by his warrant, might enter into any house in the proclaimed district between one hour after sunset and sunrise, and give orders for the apprehension of such of the inhabitants as were found absent. These, along with all persons found out of their abodes between the same hours, all persons having in their possession offensive arms, all persons not travellers or inmates found assembled after nine at night and before six in the morning, in any house where malt and spirituous liquors were sold, and a multitude of others, were to be tried without a jury, by a court of special sessions, to be held within seven days from the date of the proclamation, and prolonged by adjournments as long as the district continued proclaimed. Dispersing seditious papers was declared punishable by twelve months' imprisonment, and all other offences specified in the act, by transportation for seven years. This strong measure was enforced by the second bill, which suspended the habeas corpus act. The operation of both acts was limited to the first of August following. The opposition arrayed against these enactments was vehement, but not numerous. The more timid Whigs palliated their acquiescence by their confidence in the character of Lord Wellesley, who was then lord-lieutenant. Two other measures were shortly after introduced, and carried through parliament by the 11th of March. The first was an act to indemnify all persons who, since the first of November preceding, had, with a view to the preservation of

peace, but without legal authority, seized arms or gunpowder; the second imposed severe restrictions on the importation of arms and ammunition into Ireland, on the manufacturing of these articles in the country, and also on the removal of them from one place to another. The bills passed through both houses without observation.

The additional powers conferred by these acts were vigorously exercised by the Irish government. Every district in which an act of violence occurred was immediately proclaimed. The whole country was patrolled by large bodies of military and police. Special sessions were held for the purpose of putting the laws into immediate execution. At Cork alone there was a calendar of three hundred and sixty-six offenders, of whom thirty-five received sentence of death. The regular assizes soon followed, at which similar scenes were repeated. The most worthless testimony was lightly credited by terrified jurors. But all this vigilance, although it succeeded in rendering resistance to the constituted authorities less daring and systematic, failed to give peace to Ireland. The country continued in a state of feverish insecurity, and violence extended its sphere of action. As the spring advanced, however, and the nights shortened, outrages diminished in number; and a famine which ensued, accompanied in many places by a virulent typhus fever, the result of bad and insufficient diet, effectually tamed the spirit of insubordination. The humanity of England was awakened, and great exertions were made to relieve the sufferers, but not until their misery had almost exceeded what human nature, if untried, could be conceived capable of enduring.

On the 8th of July a bill was introduced by Mr Goulburn, prolonging the duration of the insurrection act, and the suspension of the habeas corpus, till the 1st of August 1823. A feeble opposition was offered to it. Only seventeen voted against the principle of the measure in the Commons, whilst in the House of Lords it was suffered to pass almost without remark. A more permanent measure of coercion was introduced at the same time. By the constabulary act, the lord-lieutenant was empowered to appoint, by warrant under his own hand, a chief constable for every barony, or division of a barony; and to require by his proclamation the county magistrates to appoint constables and sub-constables at the rate of sixteen to a barony. If the magistrates did not obey the proclamation within fourteen days, the lord-lieutenant was to appoint the constables himself. The chief constable was to have a house provided for him, and a salary not exceeding £100 per annum; the salaries of the others were not to exceed £35 a year. The lord-lieutenant was likewise authorized to nominate superintendents or inspectors of the chief constables and constables, with salaries of £500 a year. By a clause of this act, his lordship was authorized, upon application from seven or more justices, to appoint a resident magistrate for any district, possessing all the powers of a justice of the peace, bound not to leave his district except in the prosecution of his official duty, and obliged to make monthly returns of the state of the country within his jurisdiction. This official was to enjoy an annual salary not exceeding £500, and a house and furniture not exceeding £200. A keen opposition was offered to this enactment. It was alleged that it entailed an enormous expense on the country; that it was unconstitutional, and would prove ineffective. These arguments received additional weight from the quarter whence they came. Mr Charles Grant, a strenuous partizan of ministers, and who had governed Ireland for three years with great prudence and popularity, was the person who urged them with most energy. The utmost concession, however, that could be wrung from ministers was the omission of some of the most obnoxious details.

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Notwithstanding all these rigorous enactments, the insurrectionary spirit began to show itself again as the winter came on. It was, however, kept within narrow limits, and the clamour of Orange partizanship effectually drowned its noise. A revision of the magistracy had been begun, and almost completed during Mr Grant's secretaryship. The task was one of infinite labour, and its completion required both time and caution. The new list was completed by the end of 1820, and the commissions issued. The change proved great. In seven counties alone no fewer than two hundred noblemen and gentlemen had writs of supersedeas directed to them. The whole fury of these parties was directed against Lord Wellesley. On the 4th of November his lordship yet further offended the zealots of the Protestant ascendancy, by his prevention of the annual insult offered to their Catholic countrymen. The press teemed with libels against his person and government; and when he appeared in the theatre on the 14th of December, he was received with every expression of dislike, and some manifestations of violence.

Amid the anxious discussions on these local disturbances and their remedies, which engrossed the legislature, the important question of a general reform of the representative system continued to be forced upon its attention. Petitions on that subject were presented from most of the large towns and important counties of the empire. On the 29th of April, accordingly, Lord John Russell moved in the Commons, "that the present state of the representation of the people in parliament required the most serious consideration of the house." His lordship did not propose any specific plan, but indicated one or two which might be worthy the attention of the house. Mr Canning took upon himself the burden of opposing the motion, and, referring to his approaching departure for India, concluded in these words a tissue of splendid declamation: "That the noble lord will carry his motion this evening, I have no fear; but with the talents he has shown himself to possess, and with, I sincerely hope, a long and brilliant career of parliamentary distinction before him, he will no doubt renew his efforts hereafter. Although I presume not to expect that he will give any weight to observations or warnings of mine, yet on this, probably the last opportunity which I shall have of raising my voice on the question of parliamentary reform, while I conjure the house to pause before it consents to adopt the proposition of the noble lord, I cannot help conjuring the noble lord himself to pause before he again presses it upon the country. If, however, he shall persevere, and if his perseverance shall be successful, and if the results of that success shall be such as I cannot help apprehending, his be the triumph to have precipitated these results, be mine the consolation, that to the utmost and latest of my power I have opposed them." Mr Canning seems to have had a prophetic consciousness of the approaching dissolution of that system to which he had yoked himself; a consciousness justified by the division. Only a hundred and sixty-four voted for Lord John's motion, and two hundred and sixty-nine against it; but the ranks of the minority were swelled by the heirs of the noblest families in Britain, whose talents and energy promised an immense accession of force on every future occasion. This attack was followed up on the 24th of June by another, in the form of a resolution, proposed by Mr Brougham, "that the influence of the crown is unnecessary to the maintenance of its due prerogatives, destructive of the independence of parliament, and inconsistent with the good government of the state." The mover intimated, on the conclusion of his speech, that he considered his resolution, if adopted by the house, as nothing less than a pledge to parliamentary reform. A languid debate ensued, which terminated in a

negative being put upon the motion by a large majority. The party attached to parliamentary reform in Scotland received this year an accession in consequence of the contemptuous indifference with which Lord Archibald Hamilton's measure for removing the abuses which had crept into the administration of royal burghs was refused a hearing.

The only attempt made this year in favour of the Catholics was Mr Canning's bill for the admission of Catholic peers to the right of sitting and voting in the House of Lords. The idea of this measure was exactly suited to the calibre of Mr Canning's mind, showy and unsubstantial. The bill passed the Commons, but was of course rejected by the Lords.

The most serious opposition against which ministers were this year called to contend, was in the matter of finance. Mr Hume renewed his detailed attacks upon every item of the estimates and budget, and, although he failed in effecting any immediate change, kept alive the public attention, and rendered government more cautious and attentive. In other efforts Mr Hume and his coadjutors were yet more successful. Ministers announced, as the whole amount of their projected alleviation of national burdens, the repeal of the malt tax, which produced nearly a million and a half per annum. With a view to force them to do what they refused to undertake spontaneously, Mr Calcraft on the 28th of February brought forward a motion for the progressive repeal of the salt tax, by taking off one third of the duty in each of the three succeeding years. The motion was lost by a majority of only four in favour of ministers. Next day they received a still more effectual lesson. In a discussion of the expenses of the admiralty office, Sir M. W. Ridley moved a reduction of two thousand pounds in the vote, the amount of the salaries enjoyed by the two junior lords of the admiralty. These two useless offices were consequently abolished by the votes both of Lords and Commons, although ministers continued to defend them vehemently to the last. A similar defeat was sustained by government on the 2d of May, when, in despite of every exertion, an address to the king was carried, praying him to abolish the office of one of the postmasters-general. In its other attempts to enforce retrenchment the opposition was unsuccessful; yet so well had its partial success worked upon the apprehension of ministers, that the amount of taxes repealed during the course of the session, notwithstanding their original declaration, may be estimated thus:—

Annual malt duty.....	£1,500,000
Salt tax.....	1,300,000
Leather tax.....	900,000
Tonnage duty.....	150,000
Irish window and hearth taxes.....	250,000
	£3,500,000

But the severest wound received by the financial reputation of ministers was inflicted by the hands of the chancellor of the exchequer. Mr Vansittart undertook two great financial operations; the one with a view to diminish permanently the charge of the public debt, the other to diminish part of the annual expense of government. The first was the reduction of the navy five per cents. to four per cent. Some objections were stated to the manner in which this object was proposed to be attained; but the advantage was too apparent, and Mr Vansittart's plan obtained the assent of parliament. His other scheme, however, proved a singular failure. The amount of naval and military pensions was about five millions annually. The chancellor of the exchequer proposed to provide for this branch of public expenditure by granting to certain contractors a fixed annuity for forty-five years; in return for

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which they were to pay into the public treasury such a sum in each of the forty-five years as should upon calculation be sufficient to pay the pensions that should then be in existence. The scheme was, in other words, to contract now for annual loans to be advanced to government in each of the next fifteen years, and to be repaid by a gradually increasing annuity, to commence at the end of fifteen years, and continue for thirty years from that time. This new mode of loan was improvident and grossly unjust, as tending to throw the whole load of the burden on posterity. It was attacked by Mr Ricardo and Mr Brougham with the most biting sarcasm, but nevertheless most pertinaciously forced, with the whole strength of the ministerial phalanx, through both houses. A late awaited it, however, compared with which Mr Brougham's withering sneer was gross flattery: not one capitalist could be found to engage in the contract. The prudence of the monied men saved the minister from the effects of his own imbecility. He again submitted his scheme to the House of Commons in a form so modified, that the only objection to which it was liable was its intricacy and confusion. This, however, was considered necessary to the honour of the financier.

The continued distress of the agricultural interest occupied the attention of parliament to a yet greater extent than in the preceding year. At the commencement of the session Mr Brougham submitted a resolution to the House of Commons, declaratory of the necessity of affording relief to the agriculturists by the removal of taxes. The motion was negatived, upon the declaration of Lord Londonderry that ministers had a plan of their own to propose. This plan his lordship developed on the 15th of February, when moving for the production of some financial documents. The remedies which it contemplated were the repeal of the malt-tax, already noticed, and a loan to the agricultural interest by means of exchequer bills. In order to clear the way for an exposition of this measure, the marquis moved, on the 18th of February, for the renewal of the agricultural committee. This body laid its report before the house on the 1st of April, and the same day three different schemes were submitted for the relief and protection of farmers and landlords. Lord Londonderry proposed a loan of a million to the agriculturists by means of exchequer bills, under certain circumstances; the opening of the ports to the importation of foreign grain whenever the average price of British corn exceeded a specified sum; and the subjecting of the foreign grain thus admitted to certain duties. Mr Ricardo proposed no loan, but the opening of the ports, when British corn reached a specified price; to foreign grain, subjected to certain duties, and a bounty or drawback on the exportation of corn to foreign countries. Mr Huskisson's resolutions contained a narrative of the state of the British agriculturist, from which the proper method of coming to his assistance was logically deduced. His plan was a gradual repeal of the prohibitory corn laws, and the establishment of a permanently free trade in foreign grain, subject to the imposition of moderate duties. Lord Londonderry subsequently withdrew his proposal to extend a loan to the agriculturists. Mr Ricardo withdrew his resolutions, two of them, having reference to the scale of duties upon imported grain, and the drawback upon such as should be exported, having been adopted by Mr Huskisson. The final discussion in the Commons took place on the 7th of May. Sir Thomas Lethbridge proposed a series of protecting duties, including almost every species of agricultural produce, down to apples and pears, which received a very feeble support from a small minority. The conjoined resolutions of Mr Huskisson and Mr Ricardo were likewise negatived. Lord Londonderry's resolu-

tions were agreed to; and a bill founded upon them passed into a law, against which Lords Lauderdale and Erskine entered a protest.

The commercial interest likewise attracted a considerable portion of the attention of the legislature, although, as there was on this point less difference of opinion, the debates were less noisy. The mania for speculating in foreign funds, which had begun to show itself so early as 1817, reached its height, and experienced its first check, this year. The Colombian bonds received the first shock. The depression of Spanish stock followed. A series of panics convulsed every money market in Europe. The price of all foreign stocks fell rapidly, and thousands were ruined or impoverished by the change. Nevertheless it appeared, by returns from the manufacturing districts, procured by the secretary for the home department, and laid upon the table of the House of Commons, that the rate of profits, although low, was sufficient to induce persons to enter into trade; and that in most places the operatives were fully employed. The plans announced by Mr Wallace in the preceding session of parliament, for benefiting the commerce of the country, were this year carried into effect by means of five acts. The first repealed all the acts affecting navigation and commerce passed by British parliaments previous to the enactment of the navigation laws under Charles II. The second repealed the third clause of the navigation law, which enacted, that no goods of the growth, product, or manufacture of Asia, Africa, or America, shall be imported into England, but in such ships as do truly belong to English people, and are navigated by a master and three parts English mariners; the fourth, which enacts that no goods or commodities of foreign growth, production, or manufacture, which shall be brought into England otherwise than in ships built and navigated as above, shall be shipped from any other place but the place of their growth, production, or manufacture, or from those parts where they can only be or usually have been brought; the eighth, which relates to the importation of goods from Turkey and from Russia; the twelfth and fourteenth, which relate to the importation of goods from the Levant, from Spain, and Portugal, and their dependencies; and all acts from the time of Charles II. downwards, which stood in the way of the provisions contained in the third act. This statute established the principle of the old navigation laws, but with important modifications. Foreign ships were allowed to bring enumerated goods from any port in Europe, provided the ship belonged to the port in question. The ships of Holland, so long the objects of a pitiful jealousy, were allowed the same privileges with those of the rest of Europe. Goods of any country or place in South America or the West Indies, belonging to, or which had belonged to Spain, might be imported direct from the place of growth, in ships of the country. No importation was permitted from any port where British ships were not admitted. The fourth act regulated the trade between the British possessions in America and the West Indies, and other places in America and the West Indies; and the fifth between the same colonies and the rest of the world. The object of the two last-mentioned laws was to benefit the West India planter. An attempt was also made by government to induce the East India Company to permit ships measuring less than three hundred and fifty tons to participate in the private trade to India. But the Company stood upon its charter, and refused to comply unless the full rights of British registry were extended to India built ships, and East India sugars for home consumption admitted on equal terms with those from the West India colonies. Mr Hume drew the attention of the Commons on several occasions to the exorbitant consular fees, which

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Reign of George IV. operated as a heavy tax upon merchandise; and government at last declared that the board of trade was framing a law to alleviate this evil.

The death of Lord Londonderry, which happened shortly after the prorogation of parliament, whilst the king was absent in Scotland, was eventually the cause of an essential change in the system pursued by the British government. Lord Liverpool entertained very liberal opinions in matters of commercial and international policy. His sentiments were in general shared by such members of the Grenville party and of Mr Canning's friends as were in office. Mr Peel was a minister of comprehensive mind, extensive acquirements, and a disposition that could adapt itself to associates of any principles. The liberal inclinations of these men were completely neutralized by the bigoted ultra toryism of Eldon, Londonderry, and Wellington, with their retainers Bathurst, Westmoreland, Maryborough, Sidmouth, and Vansittart. Of this clique, Londonderry, by his plausible manners, ready flow of language, and relentless pertinacity of purpose, was the animating spirit. After his death it offered to its more enlightened associates no resistance beyond that of mere *ris inertia*. In opposition to its wishes, and in opposition to the king's personal dislike, Lord Liverpool installed Mr Canning into the office left vacant by the death of the Marquis of Londonderry. The new foreign secretary was further strengthened in the commencement of 1823, by the resignation of Mr Vansittart, to whose financial reputation the last session of parliament had given the finishing stroke, upon receiving a peerage and the sinecure chancellorship of the duchy of Lancaster. He was succeeded as chancellor of the exchequer by Mr Frederick Robinson. Mr Huskisson was at the same time appointed president of the board of trade; his seat in the cabinet he did not receive till a later period. A government of force had been found not to answer, and one of specious pretence was now to be tried.

The line of policy observed by government during the continuance of Mr Canning, Mr Robinson, and Mr Huskisson in office, was such as to conciliate the confidence of a large body of the people. It was indeed a material improvement upon that persisted in by Lord Londonderry and Mr Vansittart; and the nation, long unaccustomed to such a parade of liberality on the part of ministers, conceived an exaggerated idea of its excellence. To this circumstance, and to the more determined and better organized efforts of the Catholics of Ireland, which for some years shared, with questions of commercial arrangements and foreign policy, almost the exclusive attention of the public, we are to attribute the fact that, subsequent to the year 1823, the very name of parliamentary reform seemed for a time to have been forgotten. During the early part of the session of parliament in this year, the table of the House of Commons was loaded with petitions for reform. On the 24th of April Lord John Russell moved that the state of parliamentary representation required the most serious consideration of the house. The motion, however, was negatived. Lord Archibald Hamilton submitted a series of resolutions to the house on the 2d of June, descriptive of the state of county representation in Scotland, and containing a pledge of early redress. But these were negatived by a narrow majority. Nevertheless we hear no more in parliament for several years of reform, except in some futile attempts to obtain an amendment in the representation of Edinburgh.

The topic on which the discussions in parliament for the most part turned during the session of 1823 were the relations of continental Europe. Mr Canning's system was to record a protest against the doctrines of the allied sovereigns, and to endeavour to prevent any attack upon

Spain on their part, but if possible to avoid war. A few days after Mr Canning's acceptance of office, the Duke of Wellington left London for Vienna. The topic of deliberation at the congress appointed to be held in that city was the existing state of affairs between Russia and the Porte. That question having been disposed of, the members of the congress, with the exception of the British minister, were to have adjourned to Verona, there to sit in judgment on the Italian peninsula. It was the wish of Mr Canning that the absence of the English minister from Verona should mark England's refusal to interfere with the independence of the Italian states. The Duke of Wellington, however, being detained by indisposition, did not reach Vienna until a few days before the proposed adjournment, and the urgency of affairs rendered it advisable that he should follow the sovereigns to Verona. He had learned from a conversation with M. de Villèle at Paris, that it was the intention of the French ministers to call upon the congress to come to some decision on the relative positions of France and Spain. By Mr Canning's instructions the Duke of Wellington opposed most vigorously any interference on the part of the allied sovereigns with the internal arrangements of Spain. This unexpected opposition checked them in their arbitrary projects; and the result was, that they abstained from a combined demonstration, resolving to assist France, in case of any aggression upon the part of Spain, of any outrage on the person of the king, or of any attempt to change the dynasty of that kingdom. With this resolution the congress separated, and Mr Canning's negotiations for preserving the peace of Europe and the principle of national independence were adjourned to Paris.

The British envoys in that capital were amused by different pretences, from the termination of the congress in November 1822 till the 7th of April 1823, when the Duke d'Angoulême crossed the Bidassoa. According as timid or rash counsels prevailed, the French ministers expressed pacific or warlike intentions; but whatever their expressions might be, French gold and French intrigue were incessantly employed in stirring up factions in Spain. The reasons for declaring war, ultimately published by France, however frivolous, rested the justification of the matter upon a national quarrel alone, and thus precluded the interference of Britain. The popular feeling in England ran very high in favour of Spain; but the indifference manifested by the body of that nation towards the constitutional cause reconciled the country to the pacific policy of ministers.

The most embarrassing circumstance which attended these negotiations was the necessity of a serious remonstrance with the Spanish ministry respecting certain aggressions perpetrated on British subjects in consequence of the disputes between Spain and her colonies. The constitutional government was as averse to the recognition of colonial independence as the old despotism. Britain had, however, acquired, during the Peninsular war, a right of commerce with the Spanish South American possessions, and this she was not inclined to relinquish; while British vessels had been captured by cruisers carrying Spanish colours, under the pretext that they had infringed a nominal blockade of the provinces in a state of insurrection. After various ineffectual representations, the British ministry assumed the right of redressing themselves, and sent notification of the fact to the Spanish court. It was a matter of great delicacy to press for the recognition of rights which that government could not fail to grant with reluctance, at a moment when England was the only barrier to which it could look against the encroachments of the holy alliance. The Spanish ministry, however, frankly admitted the justice of the procedure on

Reign of George IV. the part of England, and the intercourse between that country and Spanish America was allowed to remain upon the footing that had been established for years without any complaints on the part of the mother country. The success of the French army rendered it expedient to adopt yet more decided steps. In the month of July a number of respectable merchants connected with South America applied to the foreign office, requesting the appointment of commercial agents to protect British interests in that quarter of the world. Their prayer was granted, and consuls and consular-general appointed to the principal states in Mexico, Colombia, Peru, Chili, and Buenos Ayres.

The system adopted or intended to be adhered to by government in these questions of foreign policy was explicitly declared in the speech from the throne. The only complaint urged against the declaration was its coldness. Mr Canning was not at that time in parliament. Lord Liverpool's explanation of the views of ministry, and Mr Brougham's indignant denunciations of the nefarious projects of the continental sovereigns, rendered his absence felt. The Spanish question was not immediately urged by opposition, it being understood that negotiations were still in progress. The diplomatic papers relative to these transactions were submitted to both houses on the 14th of April; Lord Liverpool and Mr Canning seizing the opportunity of addressing to their respective houses explanatory statements of their conduct. The opposition leaders intimated their opinion that the explanation given by ministers was by no means satisfactory; but more minute discussion was reserved for a future occasion, when members should have had time to examine the correspondence. Before that discussion occurred, Lord Althorpe moved for leave to bring in a bill for the repeal of the act prohibiting British subjects from engaging in foreign military service, or fitting out in his majesty's dominions, without the royal licence, vessels for warlike purposes. It was argued in opposition, that, under existing circumstances, such an alteration of the law would operate exclusively in favour of Spain; and by this frivolous argument a majority of the house was influenced to negative the motion. The main question of the correctness of the ministerial measures was resumed both by the Lords and Commons a few evenings later. In both houses an address to the king was moved, expressive of regret that his majesty's ministers had not adopted a more dignified tone, and supported with more energy the cause of Spain. The universal sentiment was so apparently in favour of ministers, that the opposition endeavoured to avoid coming to a division in the House of Commons. The ministerial members, however, succeeded in forcing the house to divide, by which means they gave to the lately re-constructed ministry the sanction of an overwhelming majority.

The financial operations of the government increased the popularity which its avowed secession from the interests of the holy alliance had gained for it. The increase of the revenue enabled the new chancellor of the exchequer to commence his career with a spontaneous alleviation of national burdens. In addition to this circumstance, Mr Robinson's lucid statement of accounts, and explanation of the measures contemplated by government, contrasted most favourably with the complicated and imbecile attempts of his predecessor. Mr Robinson's calculations showed a surplus of seven millions, five of which he proposed to appropriate to the reduction of the debt, and two to the remission of taxes. The latter object was accomplished by the introduction of the necessary bills. In order to secure the former, Mr Robinson laid before parliament a bill, the purport of which was to apply an annual sum of five millions as a sinking fund, and at the same time materially to simplify the superfluous machinery

with which former sinking funds had been encumbered. Mr Maberly proposed to substitute for a sinking fund, which he disapproved of as illusory, an extinction of four millions of three per cent stock in the course of seven years, by the redemption of the land tax. It was objected that this project, as involving a necessary diminution of revenue, was totally nugatory; and it was accordingly rejected. Mr Hume fought hard for further reductions of the national burdens; but such was the popularity of ministers, that he met with less support than he had experienced on former occasions. His motion for censure against the ministry for appointing a lieutenant-general of the ordnance after that office had been declared unnecessary by the report of commissioners, was pressed to a division by Mr Canning, who was dissatisfied with the possession of power if not allowed to enjoy its parade, and negatived by a great majority.

Reign of George IV. Intent upon winning golden opinions from all sorts of men, ministers exerted themselves to secure the rejection of Sir James Mackintosh's resolutions for the improvement of the criminal code, only to introduce bills of their own tending professedly to the same end. The resolutions introduced by Sir James were nine in number, and their purport was to declare the expediency of abrogating the punishment of death in the cases of most flagrant hard-ship; of substituting in these cases transportation for life or a term of years, or imprisonment with or without hard labour at the discretion of the judge; of making provision that sentence of death should not be pronounced in cases where there was no expectation of its being carried into effect; and of doing away with the forfeiture of goods and chattels in cases of suicide, and putting an end to the indignities offered to the remains of the dead in cases of suicide and high treason. The acts introduced in the course of the same session under the auspices of government, and passed, contained provisions to the same effect, with some concessions to vulgar prejudice in the treatment of the remains of suicides. In the department of civil law some amendments were introduced into the law regulating the relations of agent and principal; a commission was appointed to inquire into the forms of process in the courts of Scotland, and into the course of appeals from the court of session; a resolution was adopted by the House of Lords to devote five days of the week instead of three to hearing appeals; and some modifications of the law for preventing clandestine marriages were wrested from its reluctant propounders. Every attempt to obtain an amendment of the court of chancery proved unavailing. The dogged obstinacy of Lord Eldon, and the unwillingness of the ministry to admit the existence of abuse in one of their own offices, proved insuperable obstructions.

The conduct of ministers towards Ireland was far from being marked by the same eagerness to conciliate popular affection. The violent conduct of the Orangemen necessarily embittered the spirits of the opposite faction, and acts of violence occurred even more frequently than before. Under these circumstances Lord Wellesley found himself called upon to apply for a continuation of the insurrection act, which was conceded by parliament. This anxious moment was selected by Mr Canning to hang coldly back for the first time when the question of the Catholic claims was stirred. He expressed himself averse to their discussion at that time. Mr Plunkett, however, insisted upon bringing them before the house on the 17th of April. On that day Sir Francis Burdett and several other friends to Catholic concession declared that the annual discussion of the question was a mere farce, from which the honest advocates of emancipation ought henceforth to withdraw. Mr Brougham indulged in a strain of indig-

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nant invective that stung Mr Canning beyond the power of maintaining a complimentary appearance of equanimity, or even the decency of polished society. Mr Plunkett insisting upon bringing forward his motion, Sir Francis and many other opposition members rose and left the house. The debate was soon adjourned, and not renewed during the course of the session. In the House of Lords the Duke of Devonshire endeavoured to excite attention to the condition of Ireland, but in vain. In the House of Commons Mr Brougham called for investigation into the gross inequality of the Irish law wherever Catholic and Protestant were opposed, and to the yet more oppressive mode of its administration; but the house refused to entertain the question. Mr Hume exposed the iniquity of the church establishment, but could scarcely obtain a hearing. Ireland perceived that government was deaf to her wrongs, and England, won by the graceful and conciliatory manners of that government, careless of her grievances. A conviction began to gain ground that the country must help herself. And in the course of a few years, this sentiment animating an organized body, impelled by the restless activity of an agitator of high talents, wrung from a reluctant government the boon which had so long been prayed for humbly and in vain.

The affairs of the colonies and other dependencies excited this year more than the usual share of attention. An act was passed, establishing courts, and making other regulations for the administration of justice in New South Wales and Van Diemen's Land. A bill for remedying abuses in the administration of justice in Newfoundland was announced by ministers as in preparation. A strenuous effort was made on the part of the East India merchants to obtain an equalization of the duties imposed on the sugars imported from Hindustan, and those which were the growth of the West India colonies; but it was defeated by the exertions of the planters. But the measure most important, both in regard to the test it afforded of the progress of liberal opinions, to the consequences it has already produced, and the still greater results it must ultimately lead to, was the ministerial circular of the 24th of May, relating to the treatment of slaves in the British colonies. This document followed up the resolutions adopted by the House of Commons on the 15th of the same month at Mr Canning's suggestion. The resolutions declared the anxiety of the house that immediate measures should be adopted for securing such a gradual improvement of the slave's character as might render safe his ultimate admission to participation in the civil rights and privileges of other classes of his majesty's subjects. The circular commanded the abolition of the punishment of flogging in the case of females, and forbade the carrying of whips on the field in the crown colonies. Enactments to the same effect were recommended for the adoption of the legislative bodies of the chartered colonies. The burst of indignation in the sugar colonies was violent and unanimous. Jamaica spoke of asserting its independence. In Barbadoes, the chapel of a missionary suspected of having transmitted unfavourable accounts of the treatment which the slaves experienced at the hands of the planters was demolished, and the clergyman himself obliged to abscond. In Demerara the promulgation of the order in council was deferred, and all knowledge of it attempted to be withheld from the negroes. Some vague surmises having spread among them, the mysterious silence of their masters excited the most unreasonable expectations, and hope deferred precipitated them into insurrection. The planters in their blind fury accused the missionaries of exciting a revolt which had been caused solely by their own illegal and unwise proceedings. A court-martial convicted Mr Smith, one of the Wesleyan clergymen, in the face of the

clearest exculpatory evidence. They did not dare to inflict their unjust sentence, but the unhappy martyr died in prison before the news arrived that the king had rescinded his condemnation.

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The policy of government, liberal in the highest degree when compared with what the nation had been accustomed to, blinded men to its defects. The brilliant and somewhat gaudy eloquence of Canning strengthened the charm. His speech delivered at Plymouth in October completed his achievement. The splendid diction and imagery with which he adorned his development of the system adopted by himself and his colleagues carried away all who heard and all who read that magnificent oration. A palpable object to be attained, one of the most winning appearance, seemed to be placed within their view, nay within their reach. They soothed themselves with the idea that the honour to be gained would be shared by themselves. They forgot that nothing beyond fair words had been afforded to the falling constitutional governments of the Continent; that the reduction of national burdens so ostentatiously paraded had left them much as they were; that the sister island remained convulsed by faction, and robbed of her rights. All these they forgot and forgave for the sake of a few fair promises. Castlereagh had endeavoured for years to tame the spirit of the country by whips and dungeons, but in vain. Canning sung its stern resolves to peace in the course of twelve months. At the expense of slight concessions, a corrupt, expensive, and oppressive oligarchy had renewed its lease of power for an indefinite term.

During the year 1824 ministers continued, by perseverance in their new sprung liberality, to grow in the good graces of the nation. The opposition found it extremely difficult to muster a respectable minority. Attempts to attach to government the stigma of having played a double game with the Spanish constitutionalists, and given undue encouragement to the French, were successfully repelled. Calls for an acknowledgment of the independence of the South American states were answered by the declarations of Lord Liverpool and Mr Canning, that to all useful intents they had been declared independent. They were allowed the privileges of free states under the new navigation act, and consuls had been appointed at their most important maritime towns. A formal acknowledgment of independence could be made only by the power which claimed dominion over another. Ministers therefore contended that one thing only remained to be done, namely, the opening a diplomatic intercourse with these countries; but the power of deciding at what period this step ought to be taken, they maintained, was unquestionably the prerogative of the crown. Parliament declared itself satisfied with these reasons; and a further declaration by Mr Canning, that government had refused a second and urgent application to become a party to a new congress, made the walls of the House of Commons ring again with applause.

Notwithstanding the caution with which ministers avoided any express pledge to recognise the independence of the rising states in the new world, active preparations were making for paying the way to such a step. So early as the end of August 1823 the diplomatic agent of the United States in England had been sounded as to whether "the moment had not arrived when the governments of Great Britain and the United States might come to some understanding with each other on the subject of the Spanish American colonies; and whether, if they could arrive at such understanding, it would not be expedient for themselves, and beneficial for the world, that the principles of it should be clearly settled and plainly avowed." The American envoy did not feel himself authorized to enter, on the part of his government, into any ex-

Reign of George IV. press understanding on the subject. Mr Canning next turned to the French ambassador, with whom he opened a conference in October of the same year. The reply of this diplomatist was evasive and unsatisfactory, and seems to have fixed the British ministers in the resolution to wait no longer for the co-operation of any other power. In fulfilment of the promise made to the South American traders, consuls were dispatched to all the principal seaports within the Spanish provinces on that continent and Mexico. Commissioners were at the same time dispatched to Colombia and Mexico, with directions to report on the political state of these countries. The measures of the British government were precipitated by the urgency of opposition, by the reluctance manifested on the part of France to withdraw her troops from Spain, and by the intelligence which arrived early in 1824 of the preparatory steps taken by the president and congress of the United States towards recognising the independence of South America. Towards the end of July Mr Parish was dispatched to Buenos Ayres, intrusted with powers to negotiate a commercial treaty with that state, in the contingency of the government continuing to afford a reasonable prospect of being able to maintain its authority. On the 14th of December it was determined to recognise forthwith the independence of Colombia and Mexico; and by the first day of the year 1825 instructions and full powers had left the coasts of England, and the ambassadors of the allied courts received intimation that measures for recognising the independence of the three most powerful of the new states of Spanish America had been taken, past recall, by the British government.

Great Britain might in the year 1824 be regarded as emancipated from the false position in which, as a free and commercial nation, she had long found herself entangled. The good work was carried on by the adoption of several important measures both in and out of parliament. The first was the removal of certain stoppages and impediments to a free internal circulation. An act passed in the former session for repealing some, and providing for the progressive discontinuance of other duties to which the manufacturers of Great Britain and Ireland respectively were subject, on their importation from either country into the other, had been found so beneficial, that all the duties left in existence were repealed. Next in importance was the measure introduced by Mr Huskisson for placing the home silk manufacture on a more natural basis, by lowering the duty on raw silk, repealing the bounty on the exportation of silk goods, and substituting a duty of thirty per cent. on the importation of foreign silk manufactures. The interests of the operatives received also a share of legislative attention. The old laws against combinations of workmen for the purpose of regulating the price of labour and the hours and manner of working, were abolished by an act which denounced severe punishments against those who should attempt to influence or overawe by violence or intimidation. The laws against the emigration of artisans were likewise repealed. An act was passed of the greatest consequence to commercial dealings, establishing a uniformity of weights and measures, to commence from the 1st of May 1825. A bill for the repeal of the usury laws, a measure even more vitally important than any we have now enumerated, was thrown out by a manœuvre; its opponents having moved that it be read that day six months, at a late hour, when many of the supporters, expecting no further division, had left the house. While the legislature was thus employed, the executive was busy giving a wider extension to the system of reciprocity in commerce. Commercial treaties with Portugal and the United States of America, including this reciprocity arrangement (not however extending to the colonies), had existed

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ed since 1810 in the case of the former nation, and 1815 in that of the latter. A similar convention was concluded with Prussia in the April of the year the occurrences of which we are now narrating. The next arrangement was with Sweden. It was at first effected without treaty, and matters remained in this unauthorised condition till 1826. A convention for reciprocal equality, to endure for ten years, was concluded with Denmark in June. In May the kingdom of Hanover, and in October the duchy of Oldenburg, were admitted to the footing of reciprocity by an order in council. France and the Netherlands adhering to their impositions upon British vessels, were subjected to retaliation.

Government continued to advance with a hesitating and timorous step along the path of legal reform, into which it had reluctantly been forced. The reversal of attainders of several noble Scottish families may be viewed as falling under this head, but was a measure of little general importance. The different bankrupt laws were consolidated into one act, which, however, never received effect, a new enactment having been found necessary before the time arrived at which it was to have come into force. An attempt to procure for persons accused of felony the benefit of counsel was again defeated by the technicality of lawyers and the bigotry of the country gentlemen. The utmost attempts of the friends of law reform could this year procure nothing more than the appointment of commissioners to inquire into the proceedings of the court of chancery. The commission consisted of the chancellor, master of the rolls, and vice-chancellor, together with some masters in chancery, barristers, and members of parliament. From such a body nothing was to be expected.

The financial arrangements of ministers encountered little opposition. The revenue of the preceding year had exceeded the expenditure by £6,718,985. From this it was necessary to deduct £5,000,000, the sum set aside for the gradual diminution of the national debt. The surplus immediately available was £1,718,985. Ministers anticipated an additional surplus of £1,032,076 during the current year. This excess of income over expenditure was accounted for partly by retrenchment and partly by savings in management. Various items of charge which intercepted a part of the revenue in its progress to the exchequer were reduced. A saving of one half per cent. on the interest of the debt was effected. The bounties on the whale and other fisheries were allowed to expire. Under these favourable circumstances, and with a prospect of their continuance, ministers felt themselves authorized to commence a system of alterations in the commercial and fiscal regulations of the country. They proposed to begin by putting rum, in regard to the duty with which it was chargeable, on a level with spirits produced by British distillation. The duty on coals and wool was diminished. The alteration on the laws regulating the silk trade, which has already been adverted to, was the last measure proposed for immediate adoption. The total reduction thus effected upon the national burdens was:—

Rum.....	£150,000
Coals.....	100,000
Wool.....	350,000
Silk.....	462,000

£1,062,000

The relief was kept within the limits of the fund which afforded the means of granting it.

Ireland continued to experience but a small share of this conciliatory policy. Although disturbances had in a great measure ceased, the insurrection act was again renewed. The claims of the Catholics continued to be urged with increasing feebleness, and operated with additional

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Reign of George IV. Committees were demanded both in the Lords and Commons for investigating into the state of Ireland. Ministers, however, evaded the inquiry by limiting it to the nature and extent of the disturbances that had prevailed in the districts of Ireland subject to the operation of the insurrection act. At a subsequent period of the session, Mr Hume moved "that it is expedient to inquire whether the present church establishment of Ireland be not more than commensurate to the services to be performed, both as regards the number of persons employed, and the incomes they receive." In a house of two hundred and thirty-two, only seventy-nine members supported the motion. This coldness had the good effect of confirming Ireland's resolution to rely upon herself. The Catholic Association now began to assume a bolder tone, extend its connections and operations, and take decided measures. Its members held regular sessions in Dublin, constituted themselves the medium of communication between Ireland and parliament, ordered a census of the population to be taken, and appointed collectors in every district for the receipt of the "Catholic Rent." Mr O'Connell may be regarded as the effective founder and organizer of this body. The violent and theatrical character of many of its proceedings cannot be denied; but it had the effect of giving concentration, and a rational aim, to the angry efforts of the oppressed Irish. It at once added a fresh energy to their demands for redress of grievances, and withdrew from them the temptation to illegal and atrocious acts of vengeance. Beneath its influence, and the restraining force of the new constabulary, outrage subsided to such a degree, that shortly after the close of the session the operation of the insurrection act was suspended in several of the disturbed districts. The clamours of Protestant and Catholic zealots were loud and bitter, but they abstained from personal violence. Increased tranquillity, the loosening of the restrictions upon commercial exertions, and a limited but certain increase of the means of education, shone through the troubles of Ireland like the first dull beams of a tempestuous day-break.

The West India colonies still continued in an unsettled state. A numerous military establishment maintained quiet in Demerara. Such, however, was the malignant spirit of the planters, that a missionary who had been heard to speak favourably of Mr Smith was obliged to quit the colony. In Trinidad the regulations of the order in council were submitted to under protest. In Barbadoes a bill for admitting the evidence of slaves in certain cases miscarried, and Mr Canning's plans were contemptuously neglected. In Dominica the governor recommended to the legislature the incorporation of the whole of the slave-laws into one act, comprising the substance of the order in council, and repealing such statutes as were at variance with its spirit. The House of Assembly refused, and expressly declined, to contribute any pecuniary aid towards the instruction of the slaves. In Jamaica the temper of the planters had been ruffled by a partial insurrection of the slaves; which, however, had been suppressed without loss either of lives or property. A fresh alarm was given during the month of June. On both occasions a number of negroes were executed. The revolt was supposed to have originated in some vague expectations on the part of the slaves of aid from England. The House of Assembly, which met in November, was informed that the general government had appointed a bishop for the island, and appropriated a fund for the support of the Episcopal clergy. One important office confided to the bishop was the superintendence of the religious instruction of the slaves; and the return required for this benefit was the adoption of the order in council. The angry planters, instead of complying, appointed a committee to

inquire into the loss occasioned by the late revolt, and to report on the best mode of obtaining compensation from England. An attempt was likewise made to repeal the registry act, and much violent and foolish language was uttered. All the other colonies were tranquil, except Lower Canada and the Cape of Good Hope. In the former province, constitutional questions of an essential and grave nature were urged. The House of Assembly on the one hand, and the governor, supported by the legislative council, on the other, were at issue on the claim of the former to the unlimited right of disposing of the whole revenue. The governor and council would not admit the claim to its full extent; the Assembly refused the supplies; a dissolution ensued, and the different branches of the legislative body parted in very bad humour with each other. The disquiets of the Cape were caused by the petty tyranny of the governor Lord Charles Somerset. Sixty of the most respectable individuals of Cape Town were desirous of establishing a literary society, a museum, and a library. A fundamental article of the constitution of this body, was the exclusion from their discussions of controversial theology, the question of slavery, and all purely professional subjects; but the governor condemned the scheme as illegal, and induced the chief justice and some other members to withdraw their names. The reasons which he assigned for calling the society illegal were, first, because they had presumed to form themselves into a society "without any previous reference to his excellency," which he designated as a "wilful" disregard of the existing authorities at the Cape; secondly, because it was improper to permit the establishment of an association which might have a tendency to produce "political discussion." Another instance of the governor's oppression was his conduct towards Mr Greig, the editor of a newspaper, who published an article which Lord Charles conceived to be disrespectful to his administration. The offender was ordered to quit the colony within a month. He abandoned his employment, and advertised his effects for sale; but by this time a new whim had seized the governor, and Mr Greig received intimation that he was at liberty to remain in the colony.

England was this year involved in two wars by her foreign possessions. The Burmese war will fall to be noticed when we come to narrate the events of 1825, when it was terminated. The petty skirmishes with the barbarians of Ashantee were the cause of much private grief, and materially enhanced the expenses attendant upon the maintenance of an unhealthy and useless establishment; but were too trifling to affect the majestic interests of Britain. The shock which had been communicated both to the agricultural and manufacturing interests, by the transition from a state of commerce in which, although exposed to hostile depredation, they were encountered by no competition, to the rivalry of every nation, and increased in vehemence by the measures taken to restore the currency to a sound state, had begun to pass away. The prospect of a government acting upon a rational system cheered men's spirits; and under such auspices national industry, although still trammelled and burdened by an unnecessarily complicated, wasteful, and extravagant executive system, was beginning to regain a healthy tone. There was a regular demand for labour, and wages were rising. Manufactures of every kind were prospering. The abundance of capital led to many new devices for its employment. The lately opened trade to South America was prosecuted, with all the sanguine hope of ignorance, to an absurd extent. Joint-stock companies were formed for working the mines and conducting its pearl fisheries. The rage for such associations spread through every department of domestic industry. The wildest anticipations

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Parliament met in 1825 on the 3d of February. The question most urgently pressed upon its consideration was the necessity of suppressing the Catholic Association. The coldness of lukewarm friends, and the open enmity of avowed enemies, had rallied the whole of the Catholics and a great number of the Protestants of Ireland around this body. A contempt for the rights of citizens had called it into existence and invested it with power; and now the oppressors were the first to discover the might with which they had invested it, but without feeling inclined to betake themselves to the only effectual method of destroying it, namely, removing the grievances which gave it birth.

The expressions in the king's speech applicable to the Catholic Association were these:—"It is to be regretted that associations should exist in Ireland, which have adopted proceedings irreconcilable with the spirit of the constitution, and calculated, by exciting alarm, and by exasperating animosities, to endanger the peace of society, and retard the course of national improvement. His majesty relies upon your wisdom to consider without delay the means of applying a remedy to this evil." The address in answer to the speech from the throne was agreed to without a division. Several of the opposition members, however, protested against the line of policy indicated in the passage which we have quoted. In the Lords, the Marquis of Lansdown cautioned ministers not to be hasty in repressing open complaint, and not to beguile themselves with the idea of curing a malady merely by removing a few of the outward symptoms. Mr Brougham, in the Commons, maintained that the delay of redress had driven the Irish to seek it at their own hands. He exposed the insincerity that lurked under the plural "associations." It was a juggling attempt to assume the appearance of dealing equal justice to the Orangemen and the members of the Association.

Ministers were not slack in following up their denunciation. On the second day of the session Mr Goulburn gave notice that he would, on the 10th of February, move for leave to bring in a bill to amend certain acts relating to unlawful societies in Ireland. The acts referred to were two in number. The oldest, enacted by the Irish parliament in 1793, prohibited all assemblies for the appointment of deputies, or which assumed in any manner the right of representing the people of that country. The other, passed in 1823, with the view of conciliating party feuds, was directed against Orange societies and Orange processions. Neither touched the Catholic Association. Mr Goulburn, when propounding his measure, dwelt at great length on the members of the Association. According to him, it was composed mainly of priests, men of disappointed ambition, and the familiar friends of Tone and Emmett. The Roman Catholic gentry who belonged to it were acting, he averred, under intimidation. The objects of the institution he described as being the levying of an unauthorized tax by the agency of the priests; instituting prosecutions against individuals accused of perpetrating outrages, or acting as incendiaries; and assuming the right to call upon the illegal societies to disband. With regard to the last charge, Mr Goulburn expatiated at considerable length on one part in the Association's "Address to the People of Ireland," in which they adjured them to refrain from secret and illegal societies, "by the hate you bear the Orangemen, who are your natural enemies." The members who, in the course of the debate, supported Mr Goulburn's motion, adhered most pertinaciously to his line of argument.

Mr Canning alone attempted to awe the house by insinuating that its vote against the motion would be tantamount to a declaration that it had satisfied itself "that his majesty had been deceived by false information; and that the description applied in his majesty's speech to the associations in Ireland was altogether incorrect." On the part of the opposition, Sir Henry Parnell showed that Mr Goulburn had misrepresented the mode of collecting the Catholic rent, and the share taken by the priests in the operation; and Mr Tierney affirmed that he had exaggerated its amount. Mr Denman contended that the analogy which had been attempted to be established between the case of the constitutional association and that before the house, did not hold. The former sullied the fountain of justice, because men who accused a man because he entertained certain opinions, might sit upon his trial as jurors. The latter was at the most but on a footing with associations for the prosecution of thieves and swindlers. The members only bound themselves to contribute to the prosecution of men guilty of offences which were allowed by the whole world to be such. Each might bring to the consideration of the individual case a mind free from prejudice. Mr Plunkett, although in favour of the motion, admitted that it was quite legal to associate for the purposes professed by the Association. Mr Goulburn's motion was, however, agreed to, after a debate which lasted four nights. The Catholic Association made application to be heard at the bar of the Commons; and being denied that privilege, they repeated the request to the Lords with the same want of success. The bill passed both houses, and received the royal assent on the 9th of March. But the Association, strong in the national affection, was not so easily discomfited. It submitted without a struggle; but no sooner was the session closed than an aggregate meeting of the Catholics re-established it with a constitution which did not come under the law. Like Milton's spirits, it re-united, seemingly incapable of "mortal wound" in its "liquid texture."

The friends of the Catholics laid hold of the occasion, when the pretended advocates of emancipation were protesting the more violently their continued attachment to the cause that they were busy binding those who petitioned for it, and when some of its opponents were shaken in their firmness by the determination of the people, to renew the question. Sir Francis Burdett, after some preliminary discussion in committee, introduced a bill for the relief of the Catholics on the 23d of March. Two subordinate bills were introduced at the same time for the purpose of conciliating the most determined enemies of concession. By the one the qualification of a voter was raised to a freehold of £10 per annum, while the object of the other was to make a provision for the Catholic clergy. The friends of the principal measure were by no means agreed as to the auxiliaries; but their variance was rendered of less consequence by the fate of the bill. While it was yet before the committee of the House of Commons, the Duke of York rose in his place in the Upper House, and in a long and confused speech declared his resolution to oppose every concession "up to the latest moment of his existence, whatever might be his situation in life, so help him God." This uncalled for and illiberal declaration of the heir-apparent exasperated the Catholics and grieved their friends. The bill passed the Commons notwithstanding; but was, as every one anticipated, thrown out in the Lords.

While parliament was thus refusing their just rights to the Catholics in one breath, and in the next forbidding, under heavy penalties, every attempt to vindicate them, the committee appointed by the Lords during the previous session to collect information respecting the state

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of Ireland, were proceeding with the investigation. The evidence led established the existence of the most extensive and pervading misery. The peasantry were described as being constantly on the verge of starvation, the victims of disease produced by the state of their squalid habitations. They were servilely dependent on their landlords, and harassed incessantly by the unprincipled extortions of the tithe-agents. The law which was devised to protect them had been perverted into an engine of oppression. The report of the committee was presented at too late a period of the session to admit of its being made the basis of any enactment. Various attempts were, however, made in the House of Commons to procure redress of specific grievances. Sir John Newport, founding upon the report of the commissioners on education, moved an address to the king, praying his majesty to give orders for instituting prosecutions against different individuals connected with the charter-schools of Ireland, who had been accused of gross acts of cruelty; which was agreed to unanimously. Mr Hume renewed his attack upon the established church in Ireland, but with a diminished number of supporters. And after wasting the best part of five months in violent declamation, and passing some nugatory and some oppressive laws, parliament abandoned Ireland to the rage of party spirit, with scarcely any thing to preserve the country from anarchy but the vigilance of a malignant and persecuted body, the Catholic Association.

Meanwhile discussions leading to a more satisfactory result had been agitated in parliament. On the 29th of March Mr Huskisson called the attention of the House of Commons to the contents of Mr Hume's bill of the previous session, repealing both the common and statute law against combinations among workmen. It was to be expected that men new to liberty should in some measure abuse it. Every unaccustomed pleasure is apt to be indulged in to excess. Accordingly it was found, that in several parts of the country, and more particularly in the west of Scotland and the sea-ports, the operatives had immediately availed themselves of the privilege of combination to an extent that endangered the just rights of their employers, and threatened to place themselves at the mercy of the more artful and unprincipled of their own body. The treasurer of the navy concluded his exposition of the state of combinations by moving for a committee to report their opinion how far it might be necessary to repeal or amend the act 6th George IV. cap. 95. The motion was agreed to; and in consequence of the report of the committee, a bill was introduced having for its object to afford protection to masters, and to such workmen as declined entering into associations. A summary jurisdiction was established, with power to convict for offences against the act on the oath of one credible witness, and to inflict an arbitrary punishment to the extent of six months imprisonment with hard labour. Some protection to the capitalist was undoubtedly necessary; but it must at the same time be admitted, that the vague manner in which the act was worded left open a wide field for oppression; and that the removal of the constitutional protection of a jury was an infringement upon the rights of the subject. The other measures introduced by Mr Huskisson were less exceptionable. The first was an important modification of the colonial system. The commerce of the colonies was thrown open to a certain extent to all friendly powers. They were entitled to trade thither with goods of their own produce in their own ships. The bonding system was likewise introduced into the colonies, and five warehousing ports appointed; Kingstown

in Jamaica, Bridgetown in Barbadoes, St John's in New Brunswick; Halifax, and Quebec. The large fees levied in the colonial ports were abolished. Two further alterations of a local nature were contemplated. The sugar of the Mauritius was admitted at the same rate as that of the West Indies; and the corn of Canada was admitted into Great Britain on payment of a moderate duty. This last provision, however, was limited in its operation to the space of two years. This measure was accompanied by a second, which had for its object the promotion of commerce by the diminution of duties imposed for protection, and set for revenue. A third was added, tending to relieve the navigation of the country. Quarantine duties were abolished. All fees on commerce with the colonies were done away. The duty imposed upon the transfer of ships was removed. And, lastly, the system of consular establishments was reformed by the substitution of fixed salaries, payable out of the public purse, for the burdensome and unequal fees which had previously been levied. These measures, although viewed with apprehension by some members of the legislature, were approved of without a dissenting voice. The surrender of its charter by the Levant Company at the same time conferred an additional benefit on the mercantile interest. The repeal of the usury laws was again attempted, but without success. A further reduction of taxation was effected by the chancellor of the exchequer, but not to any great extent.

The excessive speculation occasioned by the increasing commercial prosperity of the country led, in the autumn of 1825, to such a reverse as might have been anticipated. Lord Liverpool and Mr Huskisson had raised their warning voices against the excess of speculation. Mr Tooke and Mr McCulloch distinctly foretold the convulsion which was about to happen. The process of the change was this:—"The depressed state of trade in 1821 and 1822 had led to a diminished production and importation of goods, and to an advance of prices in 1823; and the very high prices of 1824 and 1825 were the result, first, of this diminished production and importation; secondly, of an improvement in the state of agricultural produce; thirdly, of the acknowledgment of the independence of the South American republics, which opened new markets to British commerce; and, lastly, of the loans which were raised for these republics, and transmitted in manufactured goods."¹ The consequences of a want of due foresight under these circumstances were, production on the part of the manufacturer beyond what could find vent, and importation on the part of the merchant beyond what could find a market. The delusion was kept up longer than it otherwise would have been, through the facilities afforded by large issues of paper. The first symptom of something being wrong was the turning of the exchange against England. The bank immediately, in conformity with its established policy, diminished its issues and discounts. Merchants were now pressed for funds to supply the place of those which had been vested in a mode unavailable for immediate demand. The bankers, induced by the low rate of interest, had discounted bills at unusually long dates, and laid out their funds upon securities which could not be quickly realized. Several important commercial failures took place, and the country became alarmed. A run upon the banks ensued, and several of them gave way. On the 12th of December it was announced that a London house, upon which no less than forty-seven country banks drew, had stopped payment. Next day the stoppage of another equally important house was announced. Mr

¹ On Paper-Money, Banking, and Over-Trading, by Sir Henry Parnell.

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Baring thus described the scene which ensued:—"A panic seized the public. Men would not part with their money on any terms, nor for any security, and the consequence was general distress. Persons of undoubted wealth and real capital were seen walking about the streets of London, not knowing whether they should be able to meet their engagements for next day." On the Wednesday the bank began to increase its discounts: it purchased exchequer bills, and discounted on stock. Before the end of the week it had issued in gold and notes not less than eight millions. In the mean time meetings were held in London, and in most of the trading towns, in which resolutions were adopted for the support of commercial credit. The public mind gradually became re-assured, but in the interval banks had broken down in every district of England. Between October 1825 and February 1826 fifty-nine commissions of bankruptcy were issued against English country banks; and at such a time the number of private compositions are estimated to be to the number of commissions in the proportion of four to one. In a mercantile nation such a suspension of the circulation paralyses every effort. The ship-owners suffered from their inability to procure freights; while the artisans were thrown out of employment, and exposed to famine. In Scotland the monetary distress was equally great, but the more solid system of banking materially alleviated the after-pressure. Mistrust and apprehension darkened the close of 1825, and threw their shade over the prospects of the opening year.

Parliament was opened on the 2d of February 1826 by commission. Almost the only topic touched upon in the speech was the distress which pervaded the nation. "The embarrassment," it said, "did not arise from any political events either at home or abroad. It was not produced by any unexpected demand upon the public resources, nor by the apprehension of any interruption to the general tranquillity. Some of the causes to which this evil must be attributed lie without the direct reach of parliamentary interposition, nor can security against the recurrence of them be found, unless in the experience of the sufferings which they have occasioned. But to a certain portion of this evil, correctives, at least, if not effectual remedies, may be applied, and his majesty relies upon your wisdom to devise such measures as may tend to protect both private and public interests against the like sudden and violent fluctuations, by placing on a more firm foundation the currency and circulating credit of the country."

The answer proposed by the ministerial party to be returned to this recommendation was agreed to in both houses without opposition; but many members embraced the opportunity of stating their opinions of the state of the country, and the measures that ought to be adopted. Lord King attacked the corn laws, and proposed that the Lords should pledge themselves to their revival during the session. Mr Brougham thought the causes of the distress more complicated than those adverted to in the speech, and dwelt upon its universality as a sufficient proof that its origin was not to be sought in the adoption of more liberal commercial principles. Mr Hume maintained that the true cause of the distress was the heavy pressure of taxation, and the wasteful expenditure of government. The members connected with the country bankers defended the characters of these gentlemen; and Mr Baring and others eulogised the conduct of the Bank of England. Ministers announced that the palliatives they meant to apply were, first, to prohibit the circulation, after a certain period, of notes under two pounds, whether issued by the Bank of England or any private banker; secondly, to increase the stability of private banks, by enabling them to augment their capital, and with that view to repeal

the clause in the charter of the Bank of England which made it unlawful for any private banking establishment to consist of more than six partners.

The first of these projects carried into execution was that which contemplated the destruction of the small notes. Government entertained apprehensions that during the interval which must necessarily elapse between the announcement of their plan and its receiving the sanction of law, an infinite number of small notes might be stamped, and immediately gave orders to put an end to the stamping of such notes. The step was unadverted on in both houses as a most dangerous assumption of power, but defended as necessary to insure the success of the measures in contemplation. On the 10th of February the chancellor of the exchequer, in a committee of the whole house, fully developed that part of the plan which related to the small-note circulation. He proposed that no new notes under the value of five pounds should be stamped; and that all promissory notes payable to the bearer on demand, issued by license, and under the value of five pounds, and stamped previous to the 5th of February 1826, should be allowed to circulate until the 5th of February 1829, and no longer. Ministers at a later period consented to allow the Bank of England the power to issue one and two pound notes, stamped at any time prior to the 10th of October, but not to continue them in circulation after the lapse of three years, the limited date of the existence of such a circulation. This measure met with vehement opposition in the Commons, but from a very small minority. In the Lords it was less pertinaciously opposed. Ministers had from the beginning limited the immediate operation of their bill to England, but declared that they could not see on what principle different systems of currency should prevail on the opposite sides of the Tweed. Scotland took the alarm; a small-note currency was there identified with every step in the march of national improvement. The tables of both houses of parliament were instantly loaded with petitions from that country against any restrictions on its paper currency. It was necessary to pay attention to representations in which men of all political parties and every rank in life concurred. Select committees were appointed to investigate the matter; and the result of their inquiries was, that the small-note currency of Scotland remained untouched. Ireland was also left in possession of her small notes.

In order to give effect to the other measure contemplated by ministers, it was necessary to interfere to a certain extent with the chartered privileges of the Bank of England, and the consent of that body was therefore requisite even to its introduction. A communication was accordingly made by the first lord of the treasury and the chancellor of the exchequer, to the governor of the bank, on the 13th of January, containing a detailed and luminous exposition of the views of ministry, and expressing their hopes "that the bank will make no difficulty in giving up their exclusive privileges, in respect to the number of partners engaged in banking, as to any district fifty miles from the metropolis." The directors, in their answer of the 20th, declined the task of recommending to the proprietors the abandonment of their exclusive privileges. Several papers were interchanged, and finally, a general court, held on the 3d of February, consented to waive their privilege, except within a district of fifty miles round the city of London. In the course of this correspondence the propriety of the bank establishing branches was suggested by government. The measure founded upon this arrangement was first introduced into the House of Lords; but no discussion took place upon it, until on the 17th of March Lord Liverpool moved the second reading. The debate even then wan-

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dered entirely from the subject, and lost itself in vague discussions on the history and fluctuations of the currency. In the committee Lord Liverpool moved the addition of a clause authorizing the Bank of England to establish branch banks throughout the country. The adoption of this clause rendered another proviso necessary, declaring the notes issued by the branch banks payable at the place where they were issued. The bill experienced a warmer opposition in the House of Commons, but was ultimately, with some slight alterations, agreed to.

Public confidence was not, however, yet quite restored, and ministers were pressed to take some step for the alleviation of the immediate pressure. After some hesitation, an arrangement was made with the bank, in virtue of which it agreed to make advances to private individuals upon the deposit of goods, merchandise, and other securities. The whole sum advanced was not to exceed three millions. The adoption of this measure rendered it necessary, for the security of the bank, to introduce a new bill regarding the law of principal and agent. This act enabled all persons in the possession of goods, possessed likewise of documents conferring the property of them, although such persons should be merely factors or agents, to pledge with the bank as effectually as if they had been the actual owners. Its operation was confined to deposits made with the bank. Commissioners were immediately appointed by the bank in the principal provincial towns. They were almost uniformly merchants resident in the district. The applications for advances were much fewer than had been anticipated; either men were unwilling to disclose their necessities to local competitors, or the knowledge that a fund was provided restored confidence.

During these transactions the cause of the late panic continued to be keenly canvassed both in parliament and beyond its walls. Emigration was suggested as a source of relief for the labouring classes, and a committee appointed to collect information on the subject. The corn laws were most vehemently exclaimed against, and even forced upon the notice of parliament. Ministers acknowledged the necessity that existed for thoroughly revising them, but deprecated the introduction of so extensive a topic during a session which, as the last of that parliament, must necessarily prove a brief one. The general question was evaded; yet before the end of the session, it was found necessary to introduce two bills to modify the strict operation of these laws. The first allowed wheat in bond to come into the market on payment of a duty of ten shillings per quarter, and other kinds of grain at inferior rates. The second gave ministers a discretionary power of admitting foreign grain during the recess to the limited quantity of five hundred thousand quarters. These slender concessions to justice and common sense were wrung with the utmost difficulty from the reluctant landed interest. On the other hand, a portion of the manufacturing and mercantile interest showed themselves equally unreasonable. The silk trade, a hot-house plant, which has not been long enough exposed to our bracing atmosphere out of doors to become sufficiently acclimatized, was as usual the first to complain. Petitions flowed in upon parliament from every district where this employment had struck root. An attempt was made to have them referred to a select committee, as a first step towards checking the advance made by government in liberal commercial policy; but without success. The ship owners, next to the landlords the most hardened and remorseless monopolists in the nation, were the next to make their voice heard. Mr Huskisson met their allegations by a prompt appeal to facts, moving for "returns of ships built in the British dominions between 1814 and 1825 both inclusive, distinguishing the number in each year, and the amount of their tonnage."

The advantages likely to result from the gradual emancipation of the country from ill-judged trammels upon its industry were too apparent to allow, in any enlightened mind, of the thought of a retrograde movement.

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In the discussions of this session to which we have hitherto alluded, the ministers had found themselves uniformly in triumphant majorities, swelled indeed more frequently by their habitual opponents than by some of their avowed supporters. The restriction of the small-note currency was a step of questionable expediency, but was susceptible of a plausible defence. The curtailment of the bank privileges could only be disapproved of by a member of that powerful incorporation. The relaxation of the corn laws, and the removal of commercial restrictions, were measures based alike upon justice and expediency. Every honest and enlightened man lent a willing support to the projectors of such a system of policy. But finance was their weak side. Robinson and Huskisson entertained clear business notions, and were willing to have adopted an honest system. Canning saw that their views were popular, and coveted the glory of enforcing them. But they and their friends knew right well that their places in the cabinet were held but by sufferance of the faction which, in virtue of its hold upon the House of Commons, dominated over England. They were kept in office to transact business, while the real holders of power reaped the profits. They might make what parade of liberal sentiments they pleased in order to conciliate the nation, so long as they did not trench upon the emoluments of their patrons. The conglomeration of offices ostensibly provided for discharging the executive functions of government, was frail, cumbrous, and ineffective, but it afforded "butress and coigne of vantage" for scions of nobility to build "their pendant beds and procreant cradles," and its structure was in no event to be interfered with. They were bound to defend what in their souls they believed to be indefensible; and the event gives it proof.

The chancellor of the exchequer, on opening the budget on the 13th of March, took a large review of the whole financial system of the country from the conclusion of peace. It will be sufficient if we confine ourselves at present to what related more immediately to the period during which he himself had held office. Considerable retrenchment had been effected between 1815 and 1819. During the last-mentioned year an increase of taxation had been made to the amount of three millions. In 1820 there had been no change, and little in 1821. In 1822 Mr Vansittart was reluctantly forced to remit rather more than three millions of taxes. Matters were thus placed upon the same footing as in 1819. Mr Robinson claimed to have remitted during his administration £8,073,000. The annual charge on the whole debt on the 5th of January 1823 he stated at £29,286,000; and on the 5th of January 1825 at £27,946,000; being a reduction of £1,339,000 in three years. But he omitted to remind the house that during each of these three years he had been professedly setting apart an annual sum of five millions as a sinking fund. In his estimate of the amount of the debt he omitted the bargain commenced by Mr Vansittart, and completed by himself, for the payment of military and naval pensions,—an annuity of £2,800,000, which had forty-one and a half years to run, paid by government to trustees who had undertaken to discharge that burden. Mr Robinson was likewise reminded by Mr Hume that the decrease of taxation was more apparent than real. The taxes in 1818 had produced a sum of £52,000,000; and in 1825 their amount was £52,540,000. In 1818 the taxes were payable in paper not convertible into gold, on an average of three years, at a lower rate than £5 per ounce. In 1825 they were payable in gold, or in paper money convertible into gold,

Reign of George IV. at the rate of seventy-seven shillings and tenpence halfpenny per ounce. In reality there had been an increase of taxation instead of a reduction. The chancellor of the exchequer evaded Mr Hume's statements and arguments, under the pretext that they were too complicated to be discussed at once. There was nothing in the argument he advanced, that the amount of revenue being derived chiefly from the excise and customs, indicated increased consumption. If the officials of government were adequately remunerated in the depreciated currency, they were extravagantly paid after its value had been raised. Undue burdens were imposed upon the country; but these were never adverted to. The majorities were the only answer relied upon by ministers; and they were applied with great success to meet motions for reduction of the naval, military, and diplomatic expenditure.

The discussions which arose during this session on the state of Ireland were as vain and fruitless as might be expected from a legislature indifferent to or ignorant of the merits of either question.

In the speech by which the session was prorogued, allusion was made to the termination of hostilities with the Burmese empire. The origin, progress, and termination of this war were briefly these:—For many years the Burmese officers had been in the practice of committing acts of encroachment and aggression on the East India Company's territories. Towards the close of the year 1823 they had crossed the frontiers, and entrenched themselves within the limits belonging to the British. During January and February 1824 they were driven from several of their stockades; but on the 21st of February they succeeded in repulsing a British force, which inspired them with fresh audacity. The governor-general, by the advice of his council, issued a declaration of war on the 5th of March. A considerable naval and military armament, drawn partly from Madras and partly from Calcutta, was assembled at Port Cornwallis in the beginning of May, under the command of Sir Archibald Campbell and Commodore Grant. It attacked Rangoon, the principal sea-port of Ava, on the 10th of May, and took it after a feeble resistance, without the loss of a single man, capturing on the occasion a considerable quantity of artillery and ammunition. A detachment sent against the island of Cheduba, on the Arracan coast, and another against Negrais Isle, at the mouth of the Nerbudda, were equally successful. On the 10th of June General Campbell moved upon the enemy's camp at Kemmendine, which he attacked in concert with the flotilla. The position was evacuated by the Burmese troops, after sustaining a cannonade of a few hours. The British maintained their advantage in several engagements, and the enemy withdrew to a greater distance; but the inundations, and the necessity of collecting a large supply of provisions, induced General Campbell to continue his head-quarters at Rangoon up to the end of the year. Expeditions were, however, detached against the most important maritime stations; and by the end of October the whole of the Burmese coast from Rangoon to the eastward was subjected to the British arms. On the 1st of December Maha Bundoolah, who had been lately appointed to the command of the Burmese army, appeared in front of General Campbell's position with from fifty to sixty thousand men. He was allowed to extend his line round the British flanks, and to the rear, and even to entrench himself in that position. On the 5th General Campbell attacked and entirely routed his left wing. Bundoolah reinforced his centre and right with the scattered remnant during the night, and presented himself next day in front, having pushed his entrenchments close up to the British lines. General Campbell attacked them at noon, and drove them from all their entrenchments.

Bundoolah having received some reinforcements, took up a strong position with twenty-five thousand men, "with a judgment," says Sir Archibald Campbell, "which would do credit to the best instructed engineers of the most civilized and warlike nations." On the 15th a body of thirteen hundred of General Campbell's infantry stormed the works, and the enemy fled, leaving their camp standing, with all their baggage and a large proportion of their arms and ammunition. Whilst these operations were carrying on, demonstrations had been made by the Burmese on the Chittagong frontier. Their arms were at first attended by success, and they continued to hover around Ramoa till the end of July. Colonel Innes having taken the command of the Sylhet frontier, they gradually fell back; and the end of October saw Cachar completely evacuated, and the enemy in full retreat for Manipoor. About the middle of February 1825 Sir Archibald Campbell moved from Rangoon upon Prome. The inhabitants of the country through which he passed saw with pleasure the expulsion of the Burmese. Having reached Sorrawah, fifty miles in advance of Rangoon, the commander-in-chief halted in the hope of hearing of the fall of Donabew, which was to be attacked by the column advancing under General Cotton by the Irawaddy. But the attack was foiled. On the 11th of March General Campbell commenced a retrograde movement on Donabew, before which he arrived on the 25th, and established a communication with the water column on the 27th. The batteries were opened on the 1st of April; and Maha Bundoolah having been accidentally killed, the Burmese garrison abandoned the fort. Sir Archibald immediately resumed his march upon Prome, which he entered on the 25th of April without firing a shot. By the 1st of February the Burmese were expelled from Assam. A series of brilliant operations on the 26th, 27th, 28th, and 29th of March gave General Morrison possession of Arracan. In Cachar General Shuldham was advancing upon Munnipoor, which lies two hundred miles north-west of Amnrapoor, the capital of the Burmese empire. The main body of the army was arrested at Prome by the rainy season, and felt somewhat straitened for provisions, the country through which their route lay having been entirely depopulated. The mortality among the troops was also considerable. The Burmese had twenty thousand men at Mecadore, fifty miles from Prome, and the same number at Patana-go. An equally numerous body was interposed between the British force in Arracan and the troops under the commander-in-chief. In September negotiations for the restoration of peace were set on foot. A cessation of hostilities was agreed to on the 17th, to continue till the 17th of October. Commissioners from the king of Ava met the British general at Neouben-ziek on the 2d of October. They endeavoured to elude his demands for territorial cessions and indemnification; but finding him immovable, requested a prolongation of the armistice, that they might consult their court. It was accordingly extended till the 2d of November. Preparations were in the meanwhile made to prosecute the war with activity in case the armistice did not lead to a definite treaty. On receiving the proposed terms of peace, his majesty of the golden foot burst into a violent passion, and gave orders to renew offensive operations. Before the termination of the armistice it was haughtily announced to the British leader—"If you wish for peace you may go away; but if you wish either money or territory, no friendship can exist between us. This is Burman custom." The whole army of Ava, nearly sixty thousand strong, advanced against Prome, occupied by six thousand British and native troops. The left division of fifteen thousand, commanded by Maha Nemiow, approached close to Prome, keeping the east-

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ern bank of the river. By the end of November the centre, between twenty-five and thirty thousand strong, under the Kee Wonghee, showed itself on the heights of Napadee, on the same side of the river, five miles above Promé. The right, consisting of fifteen thousand men under Sudda Woon, were posted on the opposite side of the river. All these bodies were, according to the military system of the Burmese, strongly entrenched. Sir Archibald Campbell, after expecting an attack for some days in vain, marched on the 1st of December to dislodge the corps of Maha Nemio; and in this he succeeded after a desperate resistance. The leader fell, and the dispersion of his followers was so complete that they did not even attempt to form a junction with their centre. Sir Archibald, after allowing his troops only two hours repose, returned to Zeouke, having marched twenty-nine miles and fought a battle in the course of a day. Next day the British stormed the heights of Napadee under a heavy cannonade, entirely dispersed the centre, and captured the whole of its artillery, ammunition, and military stores. The position of the right wing was attacked on the 5th; the Burmese were driven from their defences, which were set on fire; and a considerable amount of military stores was captured. The road to the capital was now open, and Sir Archibald, after allowing his men one day's repose, advanced upon it in two columns. The Burmese once more indicated a desire to make peace; but as their shuffling and equivocation rendered it impossible to repose confidence in their professions, the commander-in-chief continued to advance; nor was it till the army had arrived within four days' march of the capital that the king agreed to accept of the terms which were offered to him. He renounced all claims to Assam, Cachar, and Jyntia, and recognised Gumbher Singh as rajah of Munnipoor. He ceded to the Company the four great divisions of Arracan, and the provinces of Yeh, Tavoy, Mergui, and Tenasserim. And to indemnify the British government he agreed to pay the sum of one crore of rupees. Twenty-five lacs of rupees were to be paid before the British retired upon Rangoon; the same sum before they evacuated the king's dominions; and the remaining half by equal annual instalments within two years from the date of the treaty. The handful of troops which had achieved this triumph commenced its return on the 5th of March. The India Company obtained by this conquest the removal of a troublesome neighbour, an increase of territory, and a consequent increased perplexity in its affairs. Britain gained nothing but an augmentation of its military and naval establishments.

Parliament was prorogued on the 31st of May 1826, and dissolved on the 2d of June; and writs were ordered to be issued for a new election, returnable on the 25th of July. The elections afforded a test of the success which had attended the new system of ministers. They showed how far the confidence of the people had been won by the concessions made to the spirit of the age and the popular eloquence of Mr Canning. In Scotland, as was to be expected from its miserable system of mock representation, there was a dull silent adherence to the old routine, from which nothing could be gathered. In Ireland the Catholic Association prosecuted with success its sacred task of forcing from an unwilling government the nation's rights. The bond of union, in defiance of the law, was kept up among its members; "the rent" continued to be levied; and the priests had been won to lend it their confidence. In every district of Ireland the new allies struggled with unwearied assiduity to turn the angry energies of the peasantry into a legal channel, and to teach them to direct their efforts to the attainment of some real good. The elections offered them an opportunity of strengthening the phalanx of their friends in parliament, and of testifying the national senti-

ment. The forty-shilling freeholders, a body of men who had been encouraged by unprincipled political gamblers to increase and multiply beyond what the land seemed able to support, and more neglected by their superiors than the beasts of the field, except when the time arrived that they were to be driven to the poll, were converted into an engine to overthrow the power of their creators. The tenantry were besieged by the exhortations of clerical and lay emancipators to remember that they had rights as well as their landlords, and that they owed duties to themselves as well as to others. The great landholders now found the automata upon whom they had hitherto relied asserting wills of their own. The most splendid victory of the Catholics was gained in Waterford, where a member of the Beresford family was compelled to withdraw from the contest. The Catholic Association might point with pride to the change it had worked in the character of the Irish peasant; for, amidst all the heat of contested elections, bloodshed and lawless violence were on the decline, even while the hungry artisans of England were driven by want to violate the law. In England the ministers were almost everywhere triumphant. Mr Brougham experienced a more marked defeat in Westmoreland than on any former occasion. Lord Howick and Mr Beaumont, the Whig candidates for Northumberland, both failed. Mr Huskisson was again returned for Liverpool. The metropolis alone adhered to its old principles. The usual topics were advanced by the candidates for popular favour. Only one is worthy of being recorded. In proportion as the Catholic cause advanced in Ireland it seemed to grow weaker in England. The same ignorance, prejudice, and sectarian spirit of which the Catholics stood accused was appealed to by their adversaries, and the almost absolute watchword "no popery" was revived.

The bustle of the elections was succeeded by grave apprehensions of famine. Wheat had proved an average crop through England; but a long drought threatened a dearth in every other sort of grain. Barley was deficient; there was every appearance of a scarcity of pulse; oats, in many districts the most important article of food to the lower classes, and the potato crop, the sole stay of Ireland, threatened to fail altogether. The farmers, too, were suffering; for the violent and continued heats had dried up the richest meadow-land in England, till it became necessary to feed cattle with dry fodder, as if it were the depth of winter. A seasonable change of weather averted a great portion of the impending calamity; but in the month of September prospects were most alarming, and the rise in the price of grain pressed with unthought severity upon the working classes, who were still suffering from the effects of the late panic. The price of oats in reality exceeded the importation price; but the crafty devices of the landlords' committee respecting the taking of averages precluded the opening of the ports before the 15th of November, although in the interim a famine might have depopulated the country. Ministers generously resolved to risk a violation of the law rather than incur the deeper moral responsibility of allowing the people to perish by famine. On the first of September they issued an order in council, authorizing the immediate importation of oats, oatmeal, &c. upon the persons importing becoming bound to pay a conditional duty. The necessity of obtaining an act of indemnity for this step occasioned the assembling of parliament at an earlier season than usual.

The first session of the eighth parliament of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland commenced on the 14th of November 1826, and terminated on the 2d of July 1827. It adjourned twice; from the 13th of December to the 8th of February, and from the 12th of April to the 1st of May. It will be necessary, in order to pre-

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Reign of George IV. serve the current of our narrative free from perplexity, to detail briefly the changes in administration, and the intrigues by which they were effected, before narrating the legislative proceedings of this session.

Lord Liverpool was struck with apoplexy on the morning of the 17th of February 1826. As it was possible that he might recover sufficiently to resume his share in public business, a feeling of delicacy kept both the king and ministers from taking any immediate steps to re-organize the government. The disunion between the two incompatible parties which composed the cabinet continued to increase after the removal of their connecting link; and a sense of this, aided by the urgency of opposition, forbade longer delay. The first practical discussions respecting a new arrangement took place between the king and Mr Canning, at the royal lodge, on the 28th of March. His majesty's first idea was, to retain the services of Mr Canning and his friends, and to place at the head of administration a peer holding Lord Liverpool's opinions on the Catholic question. Mr Canning explicitly stated, that if those whose sentiments were favourable to the Catholics were to be excluded, solely on account of these sentiments, from the highest offices of state, he could "not consent to be the individual in whose person such a principle should be established." He therefore felt himself bound honestly to state, that "the substantive power of first minister he must have, and, what was more, must be known to have," or he must beg leave to retire from a situation which he could "no longer fill with satisfaction to himself or with benefit to the king's service." Mr Canning felt, in short, that in any administration of which he should form a part, whoever might be the ostensible, he must be the real prime minister, and he was naturally and justly indignant at the demand that he should yield up his laurels to grace the brow of titled imbecility.

With the exception of an interview, during which nothing of moment occurred, Mr Canning had no more communication with the king till the 10th of April, when he received the royal commands to prepare, "with as little delay as possible, a plan for the reconstruction of the administration." There were, however, frequent conferences in the interim between Mr Canning, the Duke of Wellington, and Mr Peel. The last-mentioned gentleman frankly declared that he had made up his mind to resign if an individual favourable to the Catholics were placed at the head of government. The duke urged strongly the necessity of having a prime minister opposed to concession. Mr Peel's professions "of respect and regard" for Mr Canning were unbounded; so much so that Mr Canning expressed himself as feeling "it quite impossible to do sufficient justice to his frankness and straightforwardness, and to feelings for which he owned he had not before given Mr Peel credit." The subsequent conduct of that minister has proved that Mr Canning's first impressions were correct. The haughty character of the Duke of Wellington prevented him from wearing the mask so much purpose. The language of the Duke of Newcastle, and other adherents of the Duke of Wellington, not disapproved of if not sanctioned by his Grace, had naturally irritated Mr Canning. By the intervention of mutual friends several interviews took place between the duke and Mr Canning, but without producing any effect beyond a re-establishment of the outward show of cordiality, and a conviction in the mind of Mr Canning that the duke coveted the post of prime minister for himself. The justice of this conclusion is established by the eagerness with which that eminent soldier on two subsequent occasions grasped at the office, and by Mr Peel's waiting upon Mr Canning at the king's command, on the 9th of April, to suggest the appointment of the duke as premier, an

arrangement which Mr Peel conceived likely to solve all difficulties.

Mr Canning left the king late in the afternoon of the 10th of April; and as parliament was to adjourn for the Easter recess on the 12th, there was not a moment to be lost. He found Lord Grenville, Mr Huskisson, and Mr Planta at the foreign office. Lord Grenville was requested to bear to his brother-in-law, Lord Harrowby, a verbal announcement of Mr Canning's having been ordered to construct an administration; Mr Huskisson was charged with a similar mission to Lord Melville and Mr Wynn; and Mr Planta to Mr Robinson. The same communication was made by Mr Canning in writing to the Duke of Wellington, Lord Bathurst, Lord Westmoreland, and Lord Bexley. The lord chancellor and Mr Peel were waited upon by Mr Canning in person. The projected cabinet, it was intimated, was to "adhere to the principles on which Lord Liverpool's government had so long acted. Lord Eldon 'had long felt anxious to resign; but wished to procrastinate the time, not for his own sake, but on account of the business of his court. In about four months he would wind up its affairs and retire.' Finding, however, his colleagues determined to secede from Mr Canning, his lordship at last vacated the woolsack, 'with coy, reluctant, amorous delay.' The Duke of Wellington inquired who was the individual intended to be put at the head of the government. To Mr Canning's reply that the king "usually intrusted the formation of an administration to the individual whom it was his majesty's gracious intention to put at the head of it," his Grace rejoined by requesting Mr Canning to desire his majesty "to excuse him from belonging to his councils." Lord Westmoreland hesitated to pledge himself, and ultimately declined office on the ground that "the chief office was in the hands of a person of different principles from Lord Liverpool's." Mr Canning replied to this insinuation; but only received a brief and haughty note, intimating that Lord Westmoreland "declined to enter into a literary conflict upon principles." Lord Bexley first accepted office, and afterwards drew back. Lord Bathurst wished to see Mr Canning, but sent in his demission before an interview took place. The reason afterwards assigned was the resignation of so many of his colleagues. Mr Peel adhered to his first determination. Lastly, Lord Melville made up his mind to resign, because, as he expressed himself in the House of Lords, he doubted the "stability" of Mr Canning's administration.

It was impossible for Mr Canning not to see that these answers were the result of combination. The king took the same view of the transaction; and, already moved by the dictatorial tone of the Dukes of Wellington and Newcastle, was roused, by this pertinacious opposition to the minister of his choice, to long unwanted decision. He immediately confirmed Mr Canning's appointment by giving him his hand to kiss. The new premier lost not a moment in gathering the friends who had stood true to him,—Lord Harrowby, Mr Robinson, Mr Wynn, and Mr Huskisson,—and preparing to fill up vacancies. Lord Melville was the last to resign, and his office was the first filled up. Before twenty-four hours had elapsed, his royal highness the Duke of Clarence, the heir-presumptive to the throne, was placed at the head of the admiralty. Lords Anglesey and Lyndhurst accepted the offices vacated by the Duke of Wellington and Lord Eldon; the Duke of Portland, Lord Dudley, and Mr Sturges Bourne, joined the administration. A negotiation was opened with the Whigs through the medium of Lord Lansdown. Some difficulties occurred to prevent the immediate accession of the party to the number of Mr Canning's avowed supporters. In general, however, they cordially co-operated with him;

Reign of George IV. and it was settled, that at the close of the session Lord Lansdowne and Carlisle, and Mr Tierney, should have seats in the cabinet.

The ministry seemed irresistible. Supported by triumphant majorities in both houses—opposed by the virulent but powerless hatred of a talentless faction of discontented place-hunters—suspected only by Lord Grey in the House of Lords, and Mr Hume and his small band of sturdy reformers in the Commons—it swayed the legislature to its will. The great body of the nation saw, in the junction of the Whigs with Mr Canning's friends, a further guarantee of administrative reform. The question of parliamentary reform had been postponed by universal consent, and the concession of it by the Whigs was less noticed than perhaps it ought to have been. Ireland, relieved from a portion of her fears by the death of the Duke of York, was waiting in breathless expectation of the change which the new arrangements were to work in her favour. The calculations of all were, however, rendered nugatory by the death of Mr Canning on the 8th of August 1827.

George Canning was more the orator, and specious organ of a party, than a statesman. He had no political principles, and it may even be doubted whether he was capable of comprehending any. In his youth he advocated despotic opinions, and the policy of restriction; towards the close of his career he patronized popular rights, and advocated a liberal commercial system; and the weapons which he used, dazzling declamation and ready wit, were alike available on either side. It would be in vain to seek in his numerous orations any clear and palpable delineation of a system, or definition of principle; they are mere showy superstructures, based on the vulgar assumptions of a party man. His favourite maxim, "to hold the balance between contending principles," is the severest satire that has been pronounced against him. It was an explicit confession that his mind was so constructed as to be incapable of apprehending truth. Even his eloquence was showy, not substantial. Its most beautiful passages are tricked out abstractions and common-places, not those burning expressions of sentiment which strike conviction, and convey new ideas to the auditor. His jokes were not always either new or select. Canning's power consisted in a generous disposition, which hankered after the love and admiration of all he came in contact with; in a physical vehemence, which compensated to a certain extent for his deficiency in reasoning and sentiment; and a feeling of rhetorical beauty, which, from its common-place character, kept him uniformly within the range of the comprehension of those he was addressing. In a popular government Canning would have sunk before men of business and fluent expression; in a despotic government his irritable temperament would have incapacitated him for competition with the cool and guarded courtier. Even in the House of Commons, his vehement disposition, alike incapable of enduring opposition or bearing triumph with moderation, if it sometimes enabled him to bear down petulance, as in the case of the celebrated "yes" with which he met some captious questions from Mr Dawson, at times prompted him to a strain of declamation revolting to every generous feeling, as in the case of his ungentlemanly joke at the expense of Lord Nugent. But on the whole, in a government such as he found England, where a despotic oligarchy sought to juggle the nation with the show of free discussion, he was an invaluable tool. He put a fair face on their worst proceedings, and he could adapt himself to every change in public opinion. Too late he awakened to a sense of his own dignity. The cold-hearted oppressors to whom he had sold his youthful vigour turned the whole energy of their concentrated malice upon him the moment he asserted his equality with them. Their

scorn and persecution preyed upon his spirits, harassed and undermined his constitution. His death was an ex-George IV. ample of retributive justice: he died the victim of the false god to whom he had sold himself.

The cabinet he had collected did not long survive him. His personality was the only cement that kept it together. Had he survived, time might have given it consistency; but both he and his immediate friends must have purchased it at the price of large concession to popular demands. He had thrown himself into the arms of the Whigs, and both parties must have thrown themselves, as the latter have since done, into the arms of the people, to enable them to make a stand against the aristocracy. His cabinet at the moment of his death consisted of three incompatible parties:—some adherents of the old *fir niente* system; Mr Huskisson and others, who wished to govern in accordance with popular principles, but without conceding any direct influence to the people; and the Whigs, whose professions had ever been a desire to afford the people a more direct voice in public councils. At the head of this discordant mass was placed Lord Goderich, an intelligent and well-meaning man, but totally destitute of promptitude and decision. Mr Herries, whose personal attachments bound him to the Duke of Wellington and Mr Peel, was placed in an important office. This ill-assorted shadow of a government was huddled up after the prorogation in 1827, and did not survive to meet the session of 1828. Lord Goderich resigned on the 8th of January. Some violent recrimination ensued between the parties, worthy only of ephemeral notice. One or other, or both parties, might have behaved, in fact did behave unbecomingly; but the real cause of the dissolution of Lord Goderich's government lay deeper,—in the very nature of its constitution.

Before proceeding to the history of his successors in office, and the fortunes of the nation under their sway, it will be necessary to revert to the proceedings of the session 1826-27; a session interrupted by two long recesses, and frittered away by vehement personal disputes.

The subject of the corn laws was almost the only one that met with serious and continued attention. The king's speech was studiously silent upon the general question, but this very silence was made a pretext for introducing it. Lord King in the House of Lords moved an amendment to the address, condemning the corn laws. Mr Western in the Commons moved an amendment to the address, calling for investigation into the state of the agricultural interest, and pointing at additional restrictions in its favour. Ministers objected to the discussion, on the ground that parliament had been summoned to meet before Christmas, not for purposes of general legislation, but to pass an act of indemnity in favour of ministers, in consequence of their having opened the ports before the averages indicated that the price of grain warranted such a step. Lord Liverpool and Mr Canning assured parliament that ministers were prepared to propose a general measure regarding the corn laws, and that they would produce it immediately after the holidays. In consequence of these representations, the only step taken before the close of 1826 was the passing of the indemnity act. Mr Whitmore took occasion to remark that this measure was a new proof of the absurdity of a law which they had been obliged to break thrice in the course of three years. It was intended to introduce the subject of the proposed alterations to the notice of both houses on the same evening, namely, the 17th of February.

The illness of Lord Liverpool prevented the propositions being submitted to a committee of the upper house, and Mr Canning's indisposition caused a postponement of the committee of the lower till the 1st of March. On that day the foreign secretary proposed a series of resolutions

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respecting the future regulation of the corn trade, to be adopted by the committee as the foundation of a bill. The object of the proposed measure he stated to be to afford as much protection to the land-owner as was necessary, at the expense of as little pressure upon the commercial interest as was possible. The mode in which this was to be accomplished was by imposing a scale of regulated duties upon foreign grain, rising and falling inversely with the fall and rise of prices. The medium price of wheat assumed was sixty shillings, and the corresponding duty was one pound per quarter. For every shilling wheat rose above the medium price there was to be a reduction of two shillings of duty until the price reached seventy shillings, at or above which it was liable to a duty of one shilling per quarter. For every shilling wheat fell below the medium price, there was imposed an additional two shillings of duty. The duty upon other kinds of grain was in proportion, and varied upon the same principle. A duty equal in amount to the duty payable on five bushels of wheat was imposed upon every barrel of wheat-meal and flour, being a hundred and ninety-six pounds. A duty equal in amount to the duty payable on a quarter of oats was imposed upon every quantity of two hundred and fifty-two pounds of oatmeal. The averages regulating the amount of duty were to be taken weekly. Mr Canning having submitted his measure to the house, postponed its consideration for a week, in order that every appearance of precipitation should be avoided. The debate, when resumed, turned chiefly upon the question of too much or too little. It was waged, however, with all that pertinacity and violence which characterize the disputes of men who differ little from each other in opinion. Some concessions were made by ministers, but they were all in favour of the land-owners. Mr Hume took no part in the discussion in committee, but when the report was brought up he entered his protest against the measure. He manfully argued for a free trade in corn as in every thing else. He maintained, that if there was truth in the allegation of the land-owners, that they bore a heavier burden of taxation than the rest of the community, the proper way to afford them relief was by a countervailing duty, or the repeal of taxes. The country needed foreign grain; it could not one year with another grow enough for its own support. When the ports were sometimes open and sometimes shut, no foreign nation could rationally venture on the speculation of raising grain for the English market; the demand was too uncertain. Mr Hume suggested the imposition of a duty of fifteen shillings on foreign wheat, to decrease annually one shilling until it was reduced to ten shillings, which was to remain the permanent duty. Only fifteen members voted for this amendment. The House of Commons having approved of Mr Canning's resolutions, a bill enacting them into a law was introduced, which reached its third reading on the 12th of April, was passed, and sent to the Lords.

A strong opposition to the provisions of the bill had been mustering and threatening before it made its appearance in the upper house. Various unimportant amendments were made in committee; but one brought forward by the Duke of Wellington sealed the fate of the bill. His Grace moved, that "no foreign corn in bond should be taken out of bond until the average price of corn should have reached sixty-six shillings." This amendment, which completely altered the nature of the bill, was carried by considerable majorities, both in committee and when the report was brought up. Ministry in consequence abandoned the mutilated measure. A temporary bill was introduced by Mr Canning, lest a year should be allowed to elapse without any legal provision on the subject; and this passed through both houses without any serious

opposition. The Duke of Wellington asserted that his amendment met with the concurrence of Mr Huskisson, the ministers, and produced a letter from Mr Huskisson in corroboration of his assertion. One expression in the letter was certainly liable to misapprehension, and might have contained the original hint of the duke's amendment; but Mr Huskisson expressly said, even of his own suggestion, that it would hazard the safety of the measure, and therefore he could not approve of it. The duke, also, when charged with having sought to defeat a measure to which he had given his assent during Lord Liverpool's life, replied that he had only approved of the general principle of it. But his measure was subversive of the principle of the bill. No wonder then that Mr Canning saw in the duke's amendment, and the hearty support it found, a personal attack. His only mistake lay in calling him an instrument in the hands of others. His previous intriguing, and his subsequent political career, show him to have been an instrument possessed of a perfect consciousness of the purposes to which he was applied. Mr Canning was thus far in the right. He was the object of the most intense animosity to the high Tories. They hated with all a woman's hatred one of the democracy who aspired to an equality with them, who they felt surpassed them in intellectual power, and who they were conscious knew that he surpassed them.

The other questions brought before the session of parliament which witnessed the termination of Mr Canning's career, were discussed with a considerable degree of listlessness and impatience. Mr Canning's vindication of the prompt interference of Britain, when Spain threatened to disturb by violence the internal arrangements of Portugal, was splendid and convincing. The establishment of a constitutional form of government in Portugal had given rise to much faction and intrigue; and there had been numerous desertions from the army. The disaffected had been well received, and allowed to organize themselves behind the Spanish frontier, and had even dared to violate the Portuguese territory. A large force of Spanish troops was mustering upon the frontier. Under these circumstances the regency, after losing some time in fruitless negotiations at Madrid, claimed the aid of England, which was frankly and promptly granted. Five thousand British troops were immediately embarked, the first division of which arrived in the Tagus on the 25th of December 1826. The course of events rendered it unnecessary for them to encounter the rebels in the field. Home affairs were discussed with the same want of keenness. On the 5th of March the House of Commons refused to entertain the question of Catholic emancipation, by a majority of four. Notices of one motion on the subject, and another for the repeal of the test act, were withdrawn immediately after the instalment of Mr Canning in the premiership, lest a premature collision between him and his new allies should be brought about. Mr Home's motion for the repeal of Lord Castlereagh's act against cheap publications was smothered by the voluntary absence of the Whigs, aided by the apostasy of Sir James Scarlett and of Sir Robert Wilson. Such was the aspect of affairs when the fate of the nation was confided to the guardianship of the Duke of Wellington.

Lord Goderich had no sooner resigned than the king sent for the Duke of Wellington, and commissioned him to form an administration with himself at its head. His Grace immediately entered into communication with Mr Peel and others of Lord Liverpool's ministry who had succeeded on the elevation of Mr Canning. The new government was speedily constructed. The Whigs were dismissed, the friends of Mr Canning remained in office, and the leading members of Lord Liverpool's cabinet return-

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Reign of George IV. The public were not satisfied at seeing the pertinacity with which Mr Huskisson and his friends clung to office. The duke indeed seemed to have retained them solely for the purpose of disgracing them in the eyes of the country; for, after forcing upon the House of Commons measures which obliged them, out of a regard to common decency, to declare they supported with reluctance, and merely for the sake of preserving unity in the cabinet, he took the opportunity afforded him by Mr Huskisson, when he voted for transferring the franchise of Penryn, convicted of corruption, to Birmingham or Manchester, to get quit of him, and with him of his retainers. Their places were immediately filled by creatures of the duke. The only other change made by the premier was his superseding the Duke of Clarence in the admiralty.

The Duke of Wellington found the country at peace, and looked up to as the head of constitutional Europe. The state of peace seemed to run little risk of being interrupted. The British troops dispatched to Portugal were still stationed there, but almost one of the first steps taken by the new minister was to withdraw them. The relation in which England stood to the Ottoman Porte was more delicate. From the commencement of the Greek struggle for independence till the year 1827 Britain had observed a strict neutrality between the Turks and their former vassals. The prolongation of the contest between the infuriated nations, however, promoted the growth of piracy to such a degree that the countries principally interested in the commerce of the Levant felt themselves bound to put an end if possible to the state of things in which it originated. These resolves were confirmed by their feelings of humanity, revolted by the Turkish cruelties. On the 6th of July a treaty was signed at London by the ministers of Britain, France, and Russia, declaratory of the necessity of putting an end to this sanguinary contest. The intervention of France and Britain was justified on the ground that their mediation had been requested by the Greeks. The object of the treaty was declared to be the effecting of a reconciliation between the Porte and its Grecian subjects. An armistice was to be insisted on from both parties as an indispensable preliminary to the opening of any negotiation. Before the Porte could be brought to declare its sentiments with regard to this interference, Ibrahim Pacha, with the Egyptian fleet of ninety-two sail, arrived in the Morea. The British squadron under Admiral Codrington was cruising off Navarino when this armament approached. The Porte not having yet refused to accede to the armistice, the English admiral gave the Egyptian his choice of returning to Alexandria or entering Navarino, to which in that case he must confine himself. The latter branch of the alternative was accepted. Ibrahim took advantage of the absence of the British and French squadrons to put to sea on the 30th of September, but returned to Navarino on the approach of Admiral Codrington. Chafed by these obstructions, he attacked the Greeks by land, and ravaged the surrounding districts with fire and sword. It was immediately resolved by the British, Russian, and French admirals, to enter the harbour, in the hope that their imposing attitude would induce Ibrahim to desist from his savage devastation. This movement produced an attack from several of the Turkish ships; and after a vain attempt at explanation the action became general. The Egyptian fleet was completely dismantled. It was feared that the sullen silence with which the intelligence of this disaster was received at Constantinople might eventually break out into war. If it happened that there was little reason to dread a transition from the peace which Europe was enjoying, owing to the accession of a military premier, the confidence in the liberal policy of England was consider-

ably shaken. No decided steps of the minister justified the suspicions of his own country and Europe; but the lenient eye with which the proceedings of Don Miguel were regarded, and the disparaging terms applied to the action at Navarino in the king's speech, were laid hold of as unfavourable symptoms.

The first step taken by the new ministry after the meeting of parliament was to appoint a finance committee. The nomination of its chairman was the ostensible reason of that schism in the late cabinet which had caused its dissolution. On the 15th of February Mr Peel proposed "That a select committee be appointed to inquire into the state of the public income and expenditure of the united kingdom, and to consider and report to the house what further regulations and checks it may be proper in their opinion to adopt, for establishing an effectual control upon all charges incurred in the receipt, custody, and application of public money; and what further measures can be adopted for reducing any part of the public expenditure without detriment to the public service." The subject of inquiry to which the mover adverted as most worthy of the attention of the committee, and most likely to be productive of benefit, was the simplification of the public accounts. He alluded to the superior manner in which those of France and the United States were kept. This admission of the propriety of taking a lesson on such a subject from these countries, when viewed in connection with Mr Canning's declamatory opposition to Mr Brougham's motion respecting the debts of admiralty in 1820, was a most remarkable sign of the times. A minister who had opposed that very Mr Canning on the ground that he conceded too much to the innovating spirit of the age, was ready to advance before him in the path of innovation. Mr Peel's motion encountered no stronger opposition than arose from a proposal made by Mr Hume, that as one committee was inadequate to overtake the immense number of topics embraced by the proposed investigation, several should be appointed. Mr Brougham, with a view to reconcile the two plans, suggested the division of the committee into sub-committees, each taking a specific subject of inquiry. Ministers persisted in adhering to their original plan. Two measures of financial reform were submitted by the committee to the House of Commons during the session. The first related to the system on which government annuities were granted. Mr Perceval's bill for regulating the granting of annuities of 1808 was calculated upon Dr Price's tables. So early as 1819 Mr Finlayson demonstrated to Mr Vansittart that in consequence of the errors of these tables, the country was losing £8000 per month on the annuities granted by government. The subject was of course beyond the comprehension of that enlightened chancellor of the exchequer; but even his judicious and economical successor Mr Robinson paid no attention to the representation. The finance committee soon convinced itself that the annuities occasioned loss. Nothing could be done to alter those which had been already sold; but on the recommendation of the committee a bill was passed to suspend the operation of the act under which they had been granted, until a more correct system should be settled. The other measure recommended by the committee was the abolition of the office of lieutenant-general of the ordnance; but such a concession was not to be expected from the Duke of Wellington.

The next undertaking of the ministry was the settlement of the corn laws. The bill introduced with their sanction adopted the principle of that proposed by their predecessors, but increased the duties imposed. Mr Charles Grant, to whom was intrusted the task of bringing forward the measure, described the enactment as the

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fruit of a compromise, and confessed that he thought it imperfect. Some other members of the government expressed a similar opinion. The bill was finally carried by large majorities.

While ministers were thus carrying into effect the measures originated by men with whom they had refused to co-operate, Mr Brougham was astonishing the nation with the display of a degree of legislative industry, of a mind at once indefatigable and comprehensive, that threw into the shade even his own exertions in the cause of education. On the 7th of February he directed the attention of the house to the state of the common law courts, and of the common law itself. He omitted equity in every branch, because he considered it as in some sort already taken up by parliament. For the same reason he passed over the criminal law. The inquiries pressed upon the house by Sir Samuel Romilly and Sir James Mackintosh had, it was true, been followed up timidly and on a narrow scale by Mr Peel; still the exertions of that minister were a pledge that something was to be done. The commercial law, as of modern growth, was comparatively pure. In regard to the law of real property, much had been done and more was hoped for. But to the conflicting jurisdictions, the inadequate and cumbrous forms of the common law courts, and the incongruities of the anomalous mass of consuetudinary and statutory law to which their judgments were conformed, the hand of reform had never yet been stretched out. Mr Brougham entered at great length into the constitution of the English courts, and the state of the law administered in them. For seven hours did his lucid arrangement and impressive earnestness fetter the attention of an assembly little qualified by habits or education to take pleasure in dry legal discussions. He pointed out the danger of paltry piece-meal reform, and concluded by moving an address to the throne, praying the appointment of "a commission for inquiring into the defects occasioned by time and otherwise in the laws of this realm, and into the measures necessary for removing the same." All debate on this motion was suspended until the 29th of February, when Mr Brougham substituted a modified resolution, which, with the assent of government, was unanimously carried. It prayed his majesty to take such measures as might "seem most expedient for the purpose of causing due inquiry to be made into the origin, progress, and termination of actions in the superior courts of common law in this country, and matters connected therewith; and into the state of the law regarding the transfer of real property." The field of inquiry was materially narrowed, and the prospect of efficient reform correspondingly diminished.

It has already been remarked, that the old aristocrats who rebelled against the presumption of a commoner aspiring to the chief honours of the administration, had felt themselves obliged, on their return to office, to pay homage to public feeling, and adopt the very line of policy which they had blamed in others. A more striking proof that they were merely allowed to hold the reins of government by sufferance was this year afforded in the success of the discontents in asserting their rights. Lord John Russell moved on the 26th of February that the house should resolve itself into a committee for the purpose of taking into consideration the regulations of the corporation and test acts. A keen debate ensued, which terminated in a division, when two hundred and thirty-seven voted for the committee and a hundred and ninety-three against its appointment. This was the first successful blow aimed at the supremacy of the church of England since the revolution. The committee, notwithstanding the earnest entreaties of ministers for delay, agreed to a resolution approving of the instant repeal of the obnoxious acts. It was evident,

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from the temper of the house, that concession was the only course left open for government. A bill founded upon the resolution was introduced and read a second time without opposition. When the motion for going into committee was made, Mr Peel rose and declared, that after the decision to which the house had come, he was prepared to dismiss at once from his mind every idea of adhering to the existing law. All that he asked for was, the substitution of a declaration that the predominancy of the established church should be secured for the sacramental test. His request being complied with, the ministers withdrew their opposition to the bill, which was speedily passed, notwithstanding the tears of the Earl of Eldon.

But a more serious exaction of popular right remained to be conceded by ministers; they had yet to purchase the endurance of that power to which they clung so desperately, at the price of a more glaring abandonment of their previous professions, of the adoption of a line of policy which left them to choose between the brand of previous insincerity or subsequent apostasy.

On the 8th of May Sir Francis Burdett moved for a committee of the whole house to take into consideration the claims of the Catholics, with a view to a final and conciliatory adjustment. The debate on this motion, which was continued for three evenings, ended in a majority of six in favour of the house going into committee. The resolution subsequently adopted was, that the time had arrived when a final settlement of the Catholic claims was expedient. A conference with the Lords was requested, for the purpose of ascertaining whether the sentiments of that house had undergone the same change with those of the Commons. The managers for the Lords having received the resolution, it was ordered to be taken into consideration by their house on the 9th of June. The discussion was entirely destitute of interest beyond what resulted from its being the first occasion on which the Duke of Wellington had expressed his opinion of the question at length. He grounded his opposition to concession entirely on expediency. The discussion would lead, he thought, to no practical result, and would tend only to disturb the public mind. He was desirous that the agitation of the country might be allowed to subside; and in the end it might be possible to do something, for he was most desirous of seeing the subject brought to an amicable conclusion. The motion of the Marquis of Lansdown, that the house should concur in the resolution which had been adopted by the Commons, was lost by a majority of forty-four.

While the claims of the Catholics stood in the legislative assemblies "like the swan's down at full of tide, which neither way inclines," the power which was to establish justice was carrying all before it in Ireland. The Catholics had paused to see what measures would be adopted by Mr Canning; but the elevation of the Duke of Wellington set them again in motion. The first opportunity of showing their determined spirit of opposition to him was afforded by the election for the county of Clare. Mr Vesey Fitzgerald, one of the members representing that county, had vacated his seat by accepting the office of president of the board of trade when Mr Charles Grant resigned. He had uniformly given his vote and influence in favour of emancipation; but he had identified himself with the Duke of Wellington, and was esteemed no longer worthy of confidence. Besides, a new mode of annoying government had suggested itself to the fertile invention of the Association. The laws might prevent a Catholic from taking his seat in parliament, by ordering that an oath should be tendered to him when he appeared to claim his right of sitting; but they did not forbid his being returned to serve. Taking advantage of this omission would afford the administration a test of the absolute sway which the Association exer-

Reign of George IV. ceased over the tenantry of Ireland. Accordingly Mr O'Connell was proposed as a candidate for the honour of representing Clare in parliament, in opposition to Mr Fitzgerald. Emissaries of the Association were dispatched to every barony and parish of the county. The priests, with one exception, exhorted their flocks to vote for the advocate of their rights. A fund was prepared to pay up the arrears of all tenants distressed on account of the votes they might give, upon their finding security for repayment within a reasonable time. The day of election came. Mr Fitzgerald threatened the voters with the displeasure of their landlords. "Is it," he asked, "the payment of an arrear of rent by any body of men that will compensate to the unfortunate peasant for being deprived of his natural protector? Is it the payment of a few pounds that can compensate to the unfortunate peasant for the total alienation of his landlord? When the poor man is sick, and his family famishing with hunger, where will those men be, who, to gratify a public, perhaps a private, pique, burst the bonds which for years have bound together the landlord and tenant by what was considered an indissoluble tie? Alas! they will be far distant; and the unfortunate tenant will have nobody to look to for relief and comfort, except that landlord whom he is now called upon to desert." Mr O'Connell, on the other hand, dwelt upon the utter hopelessness of good legislation for Ireland so long as the people were not represented. He expatiated upon the impossibility of men achieving their rights who shrunk back from asserting them in person, and were willing to receive them from the bounty of a patron. He reminded his hearers of the unjust and unequal taxation under which they were labouring. He warned government that "the young blood of Ireland was in a ferment." The result of the election proved that the Catholics of Ireland had determined to rely upon their own efforts alone. The tenantry had awakened to a sense of their degraded situation; a race of paupers tolerated in the land because once in seven years they were of use, and allowed to perish of hunger and cold except when it became necessary to win their voices at an election. They were determined to assert their right to equal laws and legislative attention to their interests. This spirit was mainly owing to the efforts of the Association; and to the credit of the gentlemen composing that body, a spirit of forbearance from violence had likewise been fostered in the peasantry. Notwithstanding the violence of party feeling, the Clare election was attended with less outrage than the average of English county elections; and Mr O'Connell, notwithstanding a protest taken by some of the freeholders, was declared duly elected.

In the month of July the law which had been directed against the Catholic Association expired, and that body immediately re-assembled in its original form, to improve the victory it had gained in Clare. They issued an enumeration of four pledges to be required of every person who should at any time come forward as candidate for a seat in parliament. By the first he was to bind himself to oppose the Duke of Wellington's ministry in every thing until emancipation was conceded; by the second, to support religious and civil liberty; by the third, to procure the repeal of the sub-letting act; and by the fourth, to support reform in parliament. It was declared that every candidate refusing to take these pledges should be opposed by the men, influence, and funds of the Catholic Association. The next step was to organize local clubs. These bodies speedily spread throughout the three southern provinces, and embraced in their number many of the higher as well as of the lower orders. As far as possible, a club was instituted in every parish, consisting of the principal gentry, clergy, churchwardens, and such respectable fur-

mers as could read. The club was to meet monthly. It was to keep a register of all electors within its bounds; and to have every man in readiness for future elections; and to promote good order, perfect subordination to the laws, political knowledge, and liberal feeling, as much as possible. Every club was to report once in three months to the secretary of the Association, and to receive a weekly paper for a weekly contribution of three pence. Aggregate meetings of these clubs were held during the autumn in the provinces of Leinster and Munster, and countenanced by many of the aristocracy. The party feuds which raged among the peasantry, and occasioned unintermitting scenes of riot and bloodshed, were hushed at the bidding of the Association. The superfluous flow of Irish animal spirits was turned from the path of crime, and concentrated for the achievement of a great national conquest. Well might Mr Shiel say—"What has government to dread from our resentment in peace? An answer is supplied by what we behold. Does not a tremendous organization extend over the whole island? Have not all the natural bonds by which men are tied together been broken and burst asunder? Are not all the relations of society which exist elsewhere gone? Has not property lost its influence—has not rank been stripped of the respect which should belong to it—and has not an internal government grown up, which, gradually superseding the legitimate authorities, has armed itself with a complete domination? Is it nothing that the whole body of the clergy are alienated from the state, and that the Catholic gentry, and peasantry, and priesthood, are all combined in one vast confederacy? So much for Catholic indignation while we are at peace; and when England shall be involved in war—I pause; it is not necessary that I should discuss that branch of the division, or point to the cloud which, charged with thunder, is hanging over our heads."

The first symptom of intimidation on the part of the supporters of Protestant ascendancy, was Mr Dawson's speech at a public dinner in Londonderry on the 12th of August. This gentleman was a minister of the crown, brother-in-law of Mr Peel, the leader of the Anti-Catholic party in the House of Commons, and himself distinguished for more than ordinary vehemence in opposing Catholic claims. He now declared that his sentiments were changed; that there was but one alternative, either to crush the Association, or to settle the question; that the former was impossible, the latter inevitable.

The bigots of the Protestant ascendancy were on their part no less active. No sooner had the act against illegal societies expired, than the Orange lodges were revived, and the grand Orange lodge in Dublin again opened. New associations were formed in various parts of the country, but particularly in Dublin and Ulster, under the name of Brunswick clubs. A Protestant reat was collected in emulation of the Catholic reat. The mass of the Irish population seemed arrayed into two mighty and adverse armies. Men's minds grew heated, and the war-cry of religious intolerance rose fiercer and fiercer. The Protestant friends of emancipation began to hold back from the Association. The mania of Brunswick clubs spread to England, and the spirit first showed itself in Kent, at a great meeting on Pennenden Heath. The Catholics in England were few; the question of emancipation was there regarded with comparative indifference; and there was a possibility of the prejudices of the lower orders being inflamed, and the Catholic claims made a ground of blind enmity between the sister islands.

The silence and inactivity of ministers while this storm was gathering merited the taunt of Mr Shiel. "Meanwhile the government stands by, and the minister folds his arms as if he were a mere indifferent observer, and

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the terrific contest only afforded him a spectacle for the amusement of his official leisure. He sits as if two gladiators were crossing their swords for his recreation. The cabinet seems to be little better than a box in an amphitheatre, from whence his majesty's ministers may survey the business of blood." The truth was, that the members of the cabinet were irresolute, and divided among themselves, and that the king was unmanageable. His pride was hurt at the opposition to his sovereign will, displayed in the proceedings of the Association; and his worn-out and irritable constitution was stung to frenzy by the interruption of his pleasures. The Duke of Wellington, in a communication to the Marquis of Anglesey, dated the 28th of September, told the lord-lieutenant that the Catholic question was "a subject of which the king never hears or speaks without being disturbed." On the 11th of November the duke wrote to the same nobleman:—"I cannot express to you adequately the extent of the difficulties which these and other occurrences in Ireland create, in all discussions with his majesty. He feels that in Ireland the public peace is violated every day with impunity, by those whose duty it is to preserve it, and that a formidable conspiracy exists, and that the supposed principal conspirators—those whose language and conduct point them out as the avowed principal agitators of the country—are admitted to the presence of his majesty's representative in Ireland, and equally well received with the king's most loyal subjects." Again, on the 19th of November:—"I might have at an earlier period expressed the pain I felt at the attendance of gentlemen of your household, and even of your family, at the Roman Catholic Association. I could not but feel that such attendance must expose your government to misconception; but I was silent, because it is painful to notice such things. But I have always felt, that if these impressions on the king's mind should remain, and I must say that recent transactions have given fresh cause for them, I could not avoid to mention them to you in a private communication, and to let you know the embarrassment you occasion."

The silence and inaction of the duke, circumstanced as he was, were unavoidable. They tended, however, to precipitate the final issue. Dr Curtis, the Catholic primate of Ireland, had long cultivated an intimacy with the Duke of Wellington, which had its origin in some important services rendered to the army in Spain, the doctor having held a high office in the university of Salamanca. He availed himself of the footing on which he stood with the premier to address to him a letter on the state of the country, and the importance of settling the Catholic question. The duke's reply was in these words:—"I assure you that you do me but justice in believing that I am sincerely anxious to witness the settlement of the Roman Catholic question, which, by benefiting the state, would confer a benefit upon every individual belonging to it. But I confess that I see no prospect of such a settlement. Party has been mixed up with the consideration of the question to such a degree, and such violence pervades every discussion of it, that it is impossible to expect to prevail upon men to consider it dispassionately. If we could bury it in oblivion for a short time, and employ that time diligently in the consideration of its difficulties on all sides (for they are very great), I should not despair of seeing a satisfactory remedy." A copy of the duke's letter was forwarded to Mr O'Connell, and received by him and the Association as a declaration that the minister was no longer unfavourable to the Catholic claims. A copy of the letter was likewise transmitted to the Marquis of Anglesey. In his reply to Dr Curtis the marquis pointed out that the duke could only be considered as wavering in his previous opinions; advised the adoption of such lan-

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guage as might further conciliate him; and earnestly dissuaded from every appeal to brute force. The most remarkable passage in the letter was the following:—"I differ from the opinion of the duke, that an attempt should be made to bury in oblivion the question for a short time. First, because the thing is utterly impossible; and next, if the thing were possible, I fear that advantage might be taken of the pause, by representing it as a panic achieved by the late violent re-action, and by proclaiming, that if the government at once and peremptorily decided against concession, the Catholics would cease to agitate, and then all the miseries of the last years of Ireland will have to be re-acted. What I do recommend is, that the measure should not for a moment be lost sight of—that anxiety should continue to be manifested—that all constitutional (in contradistinction to merely legal) means should be resorted to to forward the cause; but that, at the same time, the most patient forbearance—the most submissive obedience to the laws—should be inculcated; that no personal and offensive language should be held towards those who oppose the claims." This letter was produced at a meeting of the Association, and received with the warmest encomiums. The next wind that blew from England brought the mandate recalling the Marquis of Anglesey, and appointing the Duke of Northumberland to succeed him. The rage of the Catholics was unbowed, as their hopes had been premature. The storm howled more loudly than ever.

Wellington's resolution was at last fixed. It may be that pride had some share in prompting his resolves. It was known, or believed, that in his own person he had no great objections to concede what was claimed by the Catholics; and he was not a man to defer to the prejudices of others, however high in station, although he might to his own. The danger was too imminent to allow him to hesitate longer. Having secured the assent of his colleagues, and wrung his slow leave from the king, he prepared to force upon parliament a measure which it had often with seeming loathing rejected. The session of 1829 was opened on the 5th of February by a speech from the throne, which contained the following unwonted expressions:—"His majesty recommends that you should take into your deliberate consideration the whole condition of Ireland; and that you should review the laws which impose civil disabilities on his majesty's Roman Catholic subjects. You will consider whether the removal of these disabilities can be effected consistently with the full and permanent security of our establishments in church and state, with the maintenance of the reformed religion established by law, and of the rights and privileges of the bishops and of the clergy of this realm, and of the churches committed to their charge. These are institutions which must ever be held sacred in this Protestant kingdom, and which it is the duty and determination of his majesty to preserve inviolate. His majesty most earnestly recommends to you to enter upon the consideration of a subject of such paramount importance, deeply interesting to the best feelings of his people, and involving the tranquillity and concord of the united kingdom, with the temper and the moderation which will best insure the successful issue of your deliberations." The Anti-Catholics were not taken by surprise, for it had been whispered about, a few days before the meeting of parliament, that ministers intended to recommend concessions to the Catholics. But they were not yet sufficiently masters of the course intended to be pursued by the duke to organize an effective opposition, and their first burst of discontent is unworthy of being recorded.

The first measure of the ministry was one of punishment to the sturdy beggars whose importunity had ex-

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On the same day that the bill aimed at the Catholic Association received the royal assent, Mr Peel moved in the House of Commons that the house should resolve itself into a committee on the laws which imposed disabilities on the Catholics. A call of the house had been moved for that day, and the consequence was an unusually crowded attendance. The speech with which the house secretary prefaced his recommendation of the ministerial measure had two remarkable features. In the first place, every fact that he stated as influencing the decision to which he had come, must have been known for years, or he must have been unfit for his office. In the second place, while confessing that the object of the measure was to mediate between contending interests, he conceived it necessary for the honour of government to affect a stern disregard of all. His reasons for yielding to the Catholic claims were,—That the evils of divided councils were palpably so great, that something must be done to form a government with one common opinion on the subject; that a united government must either grant further political rights to the Catholics, or deprive them of those they already possessed; and that the latter alternative was impossible. Having made up their minds to bring back the Catholics within the pale of the constitution, ministers wisely brushed off all the incumbrances with which the concession had from time to time been surrounded, with the view of assuring alarmists. The great object of the measure was to abolish civil distinctions, and establish equality of civil rights. The Catholic, when promoted to office, was only called upon to swear allegiance in the usual terms; to disclaim the deposing power of the pope; and to abjure any intention of employing his privileges to weaken the Protestant religion or government. The only offices from which Catholics were excluded were that of lord-lieutenant of Ireland, that of lord high chancellor, and appointments in any of the universities, colleges, or ecclesiastical schools. No official insignia were to be borne to a Catholic place of

Reign of George IV. worship; no Catholic prelate was to assume the name and title of any dignitary of the church of England; and the names and numbers of the individuals composing monastic societies were to be registered. Making allowance for the necessity of gilding the pill in order that it might be swallowed, the measure was as liberal as could be desired. It was, however, beyond the power of the narrow-minded faction into whose hands fortune, in one of her freaks, had placed the office of effecting this great act of justice, to have kept it pure from every indication of their own want of magnanimity. The provision that the oath recited in the act, and no other, should be taken by a Catholic, was expressly limited to the case of "any person professing the Catholic religion who shall, after the commencement of this act, be returned as a member of the House of Commons." This specification was evidently levelled against Mr O'Connell, who had been returned for Clare before "the commencement of this act;" and was worthy of the temper that punished the Catholic Association at the very moment it confessed that that body had demanded no more than justice. Ministers had been tergified into an honest action, and were determined to show their resentment by performing it with as bad a grace as possible.

The burden of defending the measure fell upon the recently-converted ministerialists; the old and tried friends of emancipation contenting themselves with throwing in an occasional word of encouragement to their new allies. The line of argument adopted by all was much the same as that made use of by Mr Peel. The opposition was characterized rather by a dogged and sullen pertinacity, than by debating talent. The speakers had followed the lord of the ascendency; and the only things that enlivened the dulness of the minority were some savage sneers at the deserters. The main argument relied upon was, that a majority of the nation was opposed to concession. Ministers were repeatedly challenged to appeal to the sense of the nation by a dissolution of parliament. They who urged such reasons knew right well, that as parliament was constituted, a new election would not have given the voice of the nation. They knew that even though England and Scotland had been bigoted enough to wish to rivet the fetters of the Catholics, Ireland had still a right to appeal from their decision. Ireland was all but unanimous on the question;—Ireland was the principal party interested;—Ireland had assented to the union under the impression that emancipation was to be conceded;—Ireland had a right, if it was withheld, to demand the repeal of an alliance into which she had been inveigled under false pretences, in order, after arranging this domestic matter, to re-unite herself on equal terms to England. Parliament was certainly not the fairest tribunal; but, in the circumstances of the case, it was the best that could be had.

The majority in the committee, three hundred and forty-eight for the motion, and a hundred and sixty against it, decided the fate of the measure in the Commons. No important variation in the relative numbers occurred during the remaining discussions, neither was any new argument adduced. The speakers came forward for the purpose of recording their own opinions, not with the hope of influencing those of others. The bill was carried up to the Lords, and read a first time on the 31st of March.

In this house the demands of the Catholics had hitherto met with the most determined and uniform resistance. Its members were men of high feelings, of personal honour, and independent circumstances. They were contemplated by the pangenists of the constitution as the representatives of what was permanent in the English frame of government, and as the check upon the over-hasty resolves of

Reign of George IV. of a popular assembly. Yet they evinced as much haste and dexterity in following the veering inclinations of the minister as their humble colleagues in the task of legislation. On the 11th of June 1828 a majority of forty-four refused even to entertain the question of the Catholic claims. On the 10th of April 1829 a majority of a hundred and four passed a bill granting every thing that the Catholics asked for. The debates were equally lengthy and unsatisfactory with those in the lower house. The bill received the royal assent on the 13th of April.

The bill which admitted Catholics to both houses of parliament, and to almost every office of political power, trust, and emolument, was accompanied throughout its progress by another bill for disfranchising the whole body of forty-shilling freeholders in Ireland. This measure, as described by Mr Peel, restricted the possession of the elective franchise to the possessors of a real ten-pound freehold. This restriction did not extend to corporate towns; for had the franchise been raised within their jurisdictions to ten pound, the corporations could have overpowered the public voice by their right to make freemen. The bill fixed a day for the opening, in every county in Ireland, of a *bona fide* register of ten-pound freeholds. An act of more flagrant injustice was never perpetrated. The landlords finding that the serfs, whom they had bred for electioneering purposes, had emancipated themselves, threw them carelessly away. The wealthier Catholics had served their own purposes, and abandoned those who had fought their battles. The Irish forty-shillings freeholder had as good a title to his elective franchise as the proudest nobleman to his barony. He might be all that his calumniators represented him, but the fault lay in the system under which he was born, and in the ambitious landholders who had made it an engine to serve their own selfish purposes. He was punished for having rescued himself from the degradation of being a mere unthinking tool. Lords Duncannon and Palmerston, and Mr Huskisson, deserve to be had in remembrance for having raised their voices against this filching of men's rights. Only seventeen members voted against the bill in the Commons, and scarcely a murmur was heard from Ireland when it passed into a law. And thus a question which had vexed the nation for half a century was set at rest.

No other question of importance succeeded in arresting the attention of parliament during this agitated year. Even the budget was hurried over without its due allowance of wrangling. On the 21st of June parliament was prorogued, in order that the nation and the government might have time to reflect upon their novel situation.

The ceding of the Catholic claims was the last important act of the reign of George IV. The ministers gained by this desertion of their professed principles what every body of men adopting a similar line of conduct may reasonably expect, the enmity of their former friends, and a cold distrustful toleration at the hands of their former opponents. The country was partially disquieted during the autumn and winter of 1829. The labourers were suffering in many places from want of employment, and distress to a considerable extent was insinuating itself among the agricultural classes. England's productive powers continued unabated, and the prevalence of want showed that there was something wrong in her internal arrangements, interfering with the natural tendency of wealth to diffuse itself. In Ireland public tranquillity was far from being re-established, nor was such a consummation reasonably to be hoped for from the redress of one grievance alone in a country which had been governed for centuries by men ignorant of its wants and feelings. The boon of emancipation had been attended, as we have seen, by an act of injustice and a gratuitous insult. The former was

scarcely remembered in the hour of triumph, but it afforded a topic for declamation when the hour of agitation should arrive; and the latter sent back to Ireland, as the avowed and embittered enemy of government, the man who had more power than any other over popular feeling. O'Connell's progress through Ireland was a continued triumph. His re-election for Clare was not contested. And wherever he went he held out ministers to the popular odium, recounting all their misdeeds, real or imaginary, and appealing in turns to every passion that could be supposed to animate the peasant. The Orangemen, on the other hand, galled by the loss of their ascendancy, continued to vociferate empty menaces, which had at least the effect of producing irritation. The waves of popular hatred and prejudice continued to dash after the storm that raised them had blown over.

Amid all this trouble a conviction began to gain ground that ministers were inadequate to the task of holding the reins of government. It was apparent that they had chalked out for themselves no system to which to square their conduct. They undertook nothing of their own accord, and they adopted every suggestion. Nor was this strange. With the exception of some inferior officials, men trained in the discharge of routine duties, but who could only discharge a task prescribed to them, there was not one man among them who had a knowledge of public business. The leaders were the remnant of that imbecile aristocratic faction who had revolted at the idea of following the lead of a *parvenu* like Canning. They believed the honours of the state to belong to them in virtue of their birth; they managed to secure them by influence and underhand intrigue; but they could not use the power which they had succeeded in acquiring. Masters of their wishes, they gaped idly around, asking what they were to do next. The dilemma in which they had involved themselves was soon visible to every eye, and its effect was to revive dormant feelings. At the commencement of the reign of George IV. parliamentary reform was loudly called for by two bodies of men; by the Whigs, with whom the belief of its necessity partook largely of the character of a theoretical tenet; and by the radicals, who, without correct or extensive views, felt that something was wrong, and stumbled upon the remedy. The conciliatory policy of the cabinet after the accession of Mr Canning deluded the nation with the hope that an efficient and enlightened government might be obtained even under the old system; and the cry of reform was stilled for a time. But the intrigues by which it was sought to keep Mr Canning out of the premiership, and the success with which they were employed after his death, revived the conviction that an enlightened ministry, acting for the national good, must remain weak, unless, by parliamentary reform, the body of the people obtained a more direct control over the executive. This spirit, to which subsequent events soon imparted a more determined character, was rapidly spreading when parliament re-assembled in February 1830.

The ministers were conscious that they did not command a majority of the house. The old Tories stood in an attitude of avowed hostility. The Whigs lent a patronising but uncertain support. The Duke of Wellington, however, flattered himself that the incompatible principles of these two parties would keep them from coalescing against him. He dreamed of receiving alternate assistance from both, and, by playing off their mutual jealousy, of avoiding the necessity of throwing himself into the arms of either. Thus situated, his conduct was marked with the same tinge of feebleness as during the preceding session. When any measure to which he was averse was energetically pressed upon him, he evaded the appearance of a defeat by introducing one slightly varied in form, but

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A variety of subjects forced on the attention of parliament, confirmed the fact that men's minds were full of doubts and questionings. Lord Stanhope moved for an inquiry into the state of the nation. Mr P. Thomson moved for a committee to revise the whole system of taxation. The question of the East India charter was unavoidably brought forward. Parliamentary reform was suggested in the most various forms, and from the most unexpected quarters. The Marquis of Blandford, once a violent Tory, proposed, on the 18th of February, the appointment of a committee by ballot, to take a review of all the boroughs and cities in the kingdom, and to report to the home secretary such as had fallen into decay or forfeited their right to representation. That minister was immediately to relieve these places from the burden of sending members to parliament in future, and to fill up the vacancies by towns hitherto unrepresented. The elective franchise was to be enjoyed by all persons paying scot and lot. The plan of the marquis contemplated the revival of the custom of paying wages to members in parliament. Lord John Russell moved, on the 23d of the same month, for leave to bring in a bill to enable Leeds, Manchester, and Birmingham, to return members to the House of Commons. Mr O'Connell brought his plan of reform before parliament on the 25th of May. He moved for leave to bring in a bill to establish triennial parliaments and vote by ballot, and extend the franchise to every man who paid a tax or was liable to serve in the militia. The same day Lord John Russell submitted two resolutions to the house, first, "That it was expedient the number of representatives in the house should be increased;" and secondly, "That it was expedient to give members to the large manufacturing towns, and additional members to counties of great wealth and population." All these schemes were negatived by large majorities, and their discordant nature showed that the reformers,—for the old parties of Whigs and Tories had now well nigh merged into reformers and anti-re-

formers,—had not come to a right understanding with each other. But taken in connection with the voice of the public out of doors, they showed that the cry for reform, silenced for a while, was again rising with increased urgency, and that an extensive change in the constitution of the House of Commons could not much longer be evaded.

At this ominous crisis George IV. breathed his last. He had long been in an infirm state, but no immediate danger was anticipated till the commencement of April. On the 15th of that month the first bulletin was issued. He continued to grow weaker, and latterly the slightest exertion became intensely painful. A message was sent to both houses of parliament on the 24th of May, stating that his majesty found it painful to sign with his own hand documents which required his sign-manual, and requesting parliament to provide for the temporary discharge of that function of the crown. A bill was immediately passed, allowing the sign manual to be attested by a stamp. The disease continued to run its course, and upon the 26th of June his majesty expired.

George IV. had no public virtues. By those who knew him he is said to have possessed a taste for the arts and for letters. The only instances given of his attachment to the latter indicate a pretty correct estimate of the merits of some works of lighter literature. The buildings erected under his patronage evince an utter absence of the sense of architectural beauty and grandeur. In rich and voluptuous decoration of apartments he excelled. His taste in painting does not seem to have gone beyond a feeling of neat execution, and a recognition of strongly-expressed vulgar character. Neither science, literature, nor art, found in him an active patron; and as little interest did he take in affairs of government. He was in habits of intimacy at one time with the leading Whigs; but finding their opponents firmly seated in power, he allowed them to remain there. The character of his minister, and the course of policy adopted by him, was a matter of the most perfect indifference, so that the royal repose was left undisturbed. An intense and wilful self-indulgence and deep-rooted personal vanity regulated all his actions. It was this that made him bestow more thought upon his coronation dress than upon the government of three kingdoms. He could enjoy the pageantry of monarchy, but could not comprehend its duties. It was this that made him hazard the peace of the empire to wreak his spite on a woman. It was this that made him no pertinaciously resist concession to the Catholics. He looked upon agitation as a personal affront. The utmost that his adulators have ventured to say in his behalf is, that his manners were refined. Alternately hooted and cheered, he never possessed the affections of his subjects. In private life he might have been an agreeable companion, little thought of when absent; as a king, he was nothing, or worse—an expensive cumbrer of the royal seat.

Yet his reign was not uneventful. It commenced at the close of the extensive war which had desolated Europe. The nation, no longer engrossed with its own exploits in foreign lands, but deranged as to its internal economy by a long-continued struggle, was forced to turn its eyes inwards. The consequences of this reflex study developed themselves slowly. First the government shook itself free from the alliance of despots; and next endeavoured to check the gambling spirit of trade, by giving a healthy and substantial character to the currency. A more frank and liberal intercourse with other nations was encouraged. Retrenchment of state expenditure, and an equitable apportionment of national burdens, were loudly demanded, and in outward show at least attempted. The old inadequate customs of the law began gradually to recede before a more rational system. The unalienable right of a nation to regulate its internal concerns without

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foreign interference was recognised. It was not to be expected that such important changes could be effected without exciting individual discontent, and causing individual suffering. The consequent discussions led men to inquire into the distribution of power and privilege. The rights of citizens were warmly asserted. The equal political rights of all religious denominations were *conquered*. The adherents of national principles of government felt their strength, and prosecuted their assaults upon antiquated prejudice and abuses with more vivacity. This period of preparation was terminated by the death of George IV. The seeds of future activity were germinating in silence. The unsettled state of men's minds was as a chaos, upon which the news of the expulsion of the Bourbons from France descended like an animating spirit. The huge mass heaved at once with the throes of new life. The first fruits have been the achievement of parliamentary reform.

CHAP. XX.

REIGN OF WILLIAM IV.

Accession of William IV.—Popularity of the new King.—No change made in the Ministry.—Dissolution of Parliament.—The Revolution of July in France.—Effect produced by it in Britain.—Parliamentary Reform.—Result of the Elections unfavourable to the Ministry.—Disturbed state of the Country.—Ireland.—Anti-Union Associations.—Distress and outrages in the English Agricultural Counties.—Demand for Reform.—Political Union and Reform Associations.—Meeting of Parliament.—Speech from the Throne.—Debates on the Address.—Duke of Wellington's Declaration against Reform.—The King and Queen induced to decline dining at Guildhall on the Lord Mayor's Day.—Sir Henry Parnell's motion on the Civil List.—Ministers defeated.—Their Resignation.—Earl Grey authorized to form a New Administration, on the basis of making Reform a Cabinet Question.—Parliament adjourned till February 1831.—Decline of the outrages in the agricultural districts.—Punishment of the rioters.—Meeting of Parliament.—Ministerial plan of Reform.—Its reception by the country.—Debate on Lord John Russell's Motion.—Leave granted to bring in Bills to amend the Representation of Scotland, England, and Ireland.—Bills introduced.—Debate on the Second Reading of the English Bill.—Second Reading carried by a majority of one.—General Gascoyne's Motion carried by a majority of eight.—Dissolution of Parliament.—Scene on this occasion.—Result of the Elections.—Bill re-introduced and carried through the House of Commons.—Debate on the Second Reading in the Lords.—Bill thrown out by a majority of forty-one.—Indignation of the Country.—Proceedings of the Commons.—Parliament prorogued.—Riots at Derby, Nottingham, and Bristol.—Re-assembly of Parliament on 6th December 1831.—English Bill again introduced.—Debates.—Passed on 23d March 1832.—Carried to the House of Lords.—Read a second time by a majority of nine.—Adjournment of the House during the Easter Recess.—Great Public Meetings in all parts of the country.—Secret intrigues.—Meeting of the House.—Lord Lyndhurst's amendment carried.—Resignation of Ministers.—Lord Ebrington's Motion.—State of the Country.—Duke of Wellington undertakes to form a Cabinet on the principle of carrying the Reform Bills.—His utter failure.—Lord Grey recalled.—Subsequent discussions on the Bills.—Secession of the Opposition.

William IV. ascended the throne of Great Britain on the 26th of June 1830. The change of the monarch did not occasion any important change on the state of public affairs. The Duke of Clarence had accepted office under Mr Canning, and had been rather unceremoniously deprived of it by the Duke of Wellington; hence some people supposed that he would be unfavourable to his ministry. In the political world he was scarcely known. An old grudge existed against him from the time of the queen's trial. The Tories, who more than half feared his revolt, spread caricatured accounts of the proceedings at Bushy

House during his brother's illness. The plainness of the new king's manners, however, soon rendered him highly popular. He mingled with the people, and his familiar address and unostentatious appearance contrasted so strongly with those of the late king, that he completely won the affections of that part of the community which, as it is the first to defy a monarch, is also the first to cast him off again. No change, however, took place in the ministry. William IV. declared himself friendly to their policy, and determined to retain them.

They were, however, incapable of being much longer sustained in office, even by the royal support. The party which they had irritated by carrying the Catholic bill was strong in the Commons, and stronger in the Lords. The Whigs had lost confidence in the Duke of Wellington and his condutors, whose system of policy was temporising, calculated to keep themselves in power, but not to forward the business of the country. It was evident that every measure having in view the better organization of the state must be wrung from them, like Catholic emancipation, by demonstrations of power. War was in consequence declared against the cabinet, and prosecuted vehemently by the Ultra-Tories, but by the Whigs with more caution. The first question that gave rise to serious discussion was, whether the parliament, after voting such supplies as were immediately necessary, should be at once dissolved, or whether provision ought first to be made for a regency in the event of the king's demise before the re-assembling of that body. Ministers obtained a small majority after a violent debate. A few matters of business which could not be postponed were afterwards hurried through the house with little opposition, and on the 23d of July parliament was prorogued by the king in person; and being next day dissolved by proclamation, writs were issued for the election of a new one, returnable on the 14th of September.

A few days afterwards the news of the revolution, by which the elder branch of the Bourbons was finally expelled from France, reached England. The intelligence, as already mentioned, had a powerful effect. The delusion which the conciliatory policy of Canning had occasioned, and the belief that an enlightened and energetic government was attainable under the old rotten system of parliamentary election, had received a severe shock from the circumstances of his death. The liberal measures into which the Duke of Wellington had reluctantly been forced, had for a short time delayed the disabusing of the nation. But late events had shown that nothing was to be expected from him and the men of mere routine who formed his ministry. The longing for parliamentary reform returned with redoubled efficacy. Men were not prepared with any definite scheme, nor were they at one as to the principles on which they vindicated the justice of innovation. The news of the three days in Paris ripened men's views; they showed that wishes were useless while unproductive of action. The French received the homage of universal sympathy. This liberty was turned to use by some active friends of liberty. Meetings were called in every important town to congratulate the freedmen of France; and thus reformers were brought together, and taught how numerous a body they were.

All these circumstances operated unfavourably for ministers at the elections. Wherever the election was popular, the reformers supported a candidate of their own principles; and of the close boroughs, with the exception of those commanded by government, a decided majority were in the hands of the Duke's adversaries. The suspicious under which his administration lay, of coquetting with Prince Polignac, added materially to his unpopularity. Not one candidate appeared on the hustings to claim the

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suffrages of the electors as a supporter of ministers. The general result of the election diminished by fifty the votes upon which the government could depend.

At the same time the disturbed state of the country, by showing the incapacity of government, went far to swell the ranks of its enemies. Ireland had not been pacified, because the concession of its claims had been accompanied by personal insult and perseverance in a hostile attitude. Emancipation had never been demanded by any reasonable man as a measure that could do good further than by allaying religious feuds, and bringing the nation to a temper in which an honest government might with rational hopes of success look for support in pursuing measures of reform. But, on every question that regarded Ireland, government evinced a hostile spirit, the growth either of ignorance or bigotry. The cry for the repeal of the union was again raised, and a society established, bearing the title of "The Friends of Ireland of all religious denominations." This body announced its determination to agitate till every one of its objects should be conceded. The most essential of these were, a repeal of the sub-letting act, a radical reform in the representation, and a repeal of the union. Mr O'Connell was at the time absent in England; and there being no other man of his party equally fertile in resources and undaunted in pertinacity, the lord-lieutenant easily suppressed the new association under the act passed along with that which admitted the Catholics to a participation in the privileges of the constitution. But no sooner did the dissolution restore O'Connell to Ireland than he engaged in re-organizing his adherents into an "Anti-Union Association." This society was likewise prohibited by proclamation of the lord-lieutenant, but was succeeded by the "Association of Irish volunteers for the repeal of the Union." Many who had hitherto acted with Mr O'Connell, felt the necessity of a legislative union with England, and took alarm at these proceedings. A numerous meeting, convened by the Duke of Leinster, declared their adherence to the union. After this step the lord-lieutenant's proclamation directed against the volunteers was obeyed, nor was the repeal of the union proposed at any of the elections as a test to candidates.

Even England began to rival Ireland in misery and disturbances. While parliament continued to sit, its table was covered with petitions, describing in the strongest terms the distress suffered by the lower classes engaged in agriculture. It was predicted that unless a change for the better took place it would be impossible to restrain them from outrage. The harvest was scarcely concluded when this prophecy was fulfilled. The disturbances began in the county of Kent. Threatening letters were dispersed throughout the county, machinery destroyed, money extorted, and barns and stack-yards set on fire. The commotions were the wild aimless efforts of men suffering almost beyond nature and without hope. Viewing the matter in this light, the first rioters apprehended were treated with a degree of lenity which encouraged fresh outrages. During October, November, and December, the riots increased in frequency and boldness, and spread from Kent into Hants, Wilts, Bucks, Sussex, and Surrey. The frame of civil society seemed breaking up, and a wild deluge of human passion, untamed by moral feeling, unchecked by law, threatened to overwhelm all.

With a nation apparently resolving into anarchy, and a government helpless and stubborn, there was no hope. Like sailors in a shipwreck, men began to search for something to cling to in the impending convulsion. The demand for reform was raised more clamorously than ever. Political unions and reform associations, having for their object the propagation of definite political principles, and a demonstration of the physical strength of the reformers, were

everywhere established. The most important of these bodies were the Birmingham union, the model of all the others; the great northern union, extending over the counties of Northumberland and Durham; and the Renfrewshire political union. But others of less note were to be found in almost every town and village in the kingdom.

Such was the threatening aspect of the country when parliament opened on the 2d of November. The speech from the throne contained no indications of the means by which ministers proposed to meet the threatening emergency. It was simply announced in regard to France, that "the elder branch of the Bourbons no longer reigned," and that "the Duke of Orleans had been called to the throne by the title of King of the French." The events in Belgium were branded with the title of "revolt." The disturbances among the peasantry were attributed to "efforts industriously made to excite discontent and disaffection." A determination was expressed to exert every means which the constitution had placed at the king's disposal for the repression of outrage. No distant allusion was made to that reform which the nation demanded as with one voice. The ministerial declaration showed that the Duke of Wellington, in proud ignorance, was determined to cling to a system whose props one after another had for years been dropping down.

Any doubt that remained upon this subject was removed by the debate which took place in the House of Lords when the address to the throne was moved. Earl Grey, adverting to the opprobrious designation applied in the king's speech to the Belgian revolution, observed,— "We ought to learn wisdom from what was passing before our eyes. He felt persuaded, that unless reform were granted, we must make up our minds to witness the destruction of the constitution. He had been a reformer all his life, and at no period had he been inclined to go farther than he would be prepared to go now, if the opportunity were offered." The Duke of Wellington's reply to this portion of this speech is only memorable by the declaration made in it, which occasioned his subsequent downfall. "The noble earl has alluded to something in the shape of a parliamentary reform, but he has acknowledged that he is not prepared with any measure of reform; and I have as little scruple to say, that his majesty's government is as totally unprepared as the noble lord. Nay, on my own part, I will go farther and say, that I have never read or heard of any measure up to the present moment, which could in any degree satisfy my mind that the state of representation could be improved or rendered more satisfactory to the country at large. * * * I am fully convinced that the country possesses at the present moment a legislature which answers all the good purposes of legislation; and this to a greater degree than any legislature ever has answered in any country whatever. * * * Under these circumstances I am not only not prepared to bring forward any measure of this nature, but I will at once declare, and, as far as I am concerned, as long as I hold any station in the government of the country, I shall always feel it my duty to resist such measures when proposed by others."

The tone assumed by the opposition in both houses after this haughty declaration convinced ministers of their rashness in venturing to meet such a parliament in an official capacity. Their embarrassment was increased in consequence of an injudicious manoeuvre, intended to terrify the more timid of their opponents, by impressing them with an exaggerated notion of popular violence. The king and queen were to dine at Guildhall on the Lord Mayor's day; but, under the pretext that there was a conspiracy on the part of some abandoned characters to attack the Duke of Wellington, their majesties were induced to

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retract their assent. This attempt, by stimulating the loyalty of the nation, and adroitly confounding the king with his advisers, to give greater firmness to a wavering government, failed signally. The ministers became ridiculous. The invectives of the opposition in parliament became more pointed and inveterate; and on the 15th of November Sir Henry Parnell moved "that a select committee be appointed to take into consideration the estimates and accounts presented by command of his majesty respecting the civil list." After a short debate ministers were left in a minority of twenty-nine in an unusually full house. Mr Hobhouse asked Sir Robert Peel whether it was the intention of ministers to retain their places after such an expression of the sentiments of the house, but received no answer. Next day the Duke of Wellington in the Peers, and Sir Robert Peel in the Commons, announced, that in consequence of the vote of the preceding evening, they had tendered, and his majesty had accepted, their resignations.

The king immediately authorized Earl Grey to form an administration upon the basis of making parliamentary reform a cabinet question. His lordship had refused his support to the Canning administration on the ground that its premier was opposed to reform. His son-in-law Lord Durham, Lord Althorp, the Marquis of Lansdown, and Lord John Russell, were tried adherents of the Whig party, and friendly to reform. These, with Lord Holland, may be regarded as the nucleus of the reform administration. Its ranks were filled up by Mr Canning's friends, who had gathered from the signs of the times the impossibility of longer withstanding those innovations which timidity of character or the prejudices of education had led them to oppose. The treatment which their leader had experienced at the hands of the high aristocratic party rendered them less averse to any measure that promised to sap its power. The Duke of Richmond was the only leading member of the old Tory party who accepted office under Earl Grey. Others of that party had joined, after the concession of the Catholic claims, in calling for reform; but their object was merely to raise a clamour against a political adversary, and they ceased the moment they saw there was danger of their request being granted. Mr Brougham was appointed lord high chancellor.

There was necessarily a suspension of business in parliament till the ministers who had vacated their seats by accepting office should be re-elected. By the time that they were all restored to their places, it was too late to think of maturing and developing their system of policy before the Christmas holidays. Accordingly, Earl Grey contented himself with declaring, that it was the intention of the cabinet to introduce a plan for the reform of the Commons House of Parliament. The regency bill was passed in conformity with the recommendation in the speech from the throne. And on the 23d of December 1830 both houses adjourned to the 3d of February; ministers having declared that a long interval was necessary to enable them to concoct that plan of reform to which they had pledged themselves on accepting office.

The interval of parliamentary exertion was an uneasy one for the country. The riots and outrages in the agricultural districts had begun to decline; but the duty of punishing the convicted transgressors of the law remained to be fulfilled. During the latter half of December and the beginning of January, upwards of eight hundred rioters were tried before special commissions. Of those against whom sentence of death was recorded, only four were executed; the rest were ultimately sentenced to various terms of transportation and imprisonment. Comparative tranquillity was restored; but the mischief that had been done was not amended, nor was a healthy confi-

dence between the lower classes and their employers restored.

Neither had the change of administration been entirely successful in restoring public confidence in the constituted authorities. The stern unbending adherence of Earl Grey and his immediate friends to the cause of reform was in their favour; but the country was determined to trust no man, and meetings were held in every county and town to petition for such an alteration of the elective system as might have a tendency to secure good government.

Parliament met, as appointed, on the 3d of February 1831. Ministers announced that their plan of parliamentary reform should be brought forward by Lord John Russell on the 1st of March. The interim was occupied by discussions on the arrangement of the civil list prepared by ministers, on the budget, and on a plan for reforming abuses in the court of chancery, proposed by the lord chancellor. On that evening accordingly his lordship explained the nature and extent of the ministerial plan. The general outline bore a marked resemblance to that of the measure brought forward on a former occasion by Mr Lambton, and thrown out by a manoeuvre on the part of Mr Canning. The chief grievances complained of by the people, it was remarked by Lord John, were the nomination of members by individuals, and elections by close corporations, the limited extent of the elective franchise, and the expense of elections. With a view to do away with the two first-mentioned evils, in as far as regarded England, ministers proposed to introduce a bill proceeding upon the three principles of disfranchisement, enfranchisement, and extension of the right of suffrage. In order to reduce expense, they intended to recommend an alteration in the system of registering voters and of taking the votes at elections. The extent of disfranchisement deemed necessary to extirpate close and nomination boroughs went to deprive such places as had a population of fewer than two thousand inhabitants of their right to send any members to parliament, and to restrict such as had a population of only four thousand to one member each. Weymouth, which had previously returned four members, was to lose two of them. By this measure sixty boroughs would be totally disfranchised, and forty-seven partially, exclusive of Weymouth. The number of members thus withdrawn would amount to 168. Ministers did not propose to fill up the former number of the House. Seven large towns, which had previously been wholly unrepresented, were to receive two members each. Twenty other towns, smaller in size, and of less importance, were to receive one member each. The metropolis was to be subdivided into four additional districts, which were to return among them eight members. An addition of two members was to be given to each of the twenty-seven largest counties, and each riding of the county of York was to return two additional members, and the Isle of Wight one. The distribution of the elective franchise through the country having been thus arranged, the next point to be settled was the persons to whom the right of voting should extend. The object of ministers was not to communicate the franchise to every subject, but at the same time to extend it so far that every man who persevered in habits of honest industry might fairly calculate upon being able to attain it. Non-resident voters, as productive of much expense and bribery, were deprived of their privilege. Every householder rated at ten pounds per annum, whether the house he inhabited were his own or rented, received the right of voting. In counties, the possession of copyhold property rated to the amount of ten pounds per annum, or a lease for twenty-one years of the yearly value of fifty pounds, likewise entitled to a vote. The last object contemplated by the ministerial

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plan of reform was the diminution of election expenses. With a view to prevent the disgraceful tricks frequently practised on the hustings, the most fertile source of expense, a list of all qualified persons in every parish was ordered to be prepared by the parish officers and church wardens. This list was to be placed on the church door, and at a certain period of the year the returning officer in towns, and a person appointed by the judge of assize in counties, was to hold a court for the purpose of hearing and deciding upon the claims of persons whose votes had been held objectionable. The list, as finally adjusted, was to be published, so that every person might obtain a copy, and was to serve as the election roll for the ensuing year. The duration of the poll was limited to two days in towns, and three in counties. The counties were to be divided into polling districts, so arranged that no voter should have to go more than fifteen miles in order to exercise his franchise. This simple measure of reform for England it was proposed to follow up by similar measures applicable to Scotland and Ireland. With regard to the former country, it was to receive five additional members. Twenty-two counties were to return one member each. The remaining twelve were to be conjoined into pairs, returning one each. Edinburgh and Glasgow were each to return two members; while Aberdeen, Paisley, Dundee, Greenock, and Leith, were each to return one member. The remaining thirteen districts of royal burghs were to return each one member, as before, but the elective franchise was transferred from the delegates of the town councils to the inhabitants possessed of a certain qualification.

The qualification required in burghs was the occupancy of a dwelling-house of ten pounds per annum; in counties, the ownership of land or houses worth ten pounds a year, or holding as a tenant at the annual value of fifty pounds on lease for nineteen years or upwards. The reform of the Irish system was much less extensive, because, as was alleged, the representation of that country had been entirely re-modelled little more than thirty years before, at the time of the union. It was proposed that occupancy to the amount of ten pounds per annum should give the right of voting for burghs, and that Belfast, Waterford, and Limerick should each return an additional member. It was calculated that by this great measure 500,000 persons would be added to the national constituency, all having a stake in the country, and so dispersed over its extent as to place them beyond the influence of any faction.

This bold measure produced an electric effect upon parliament. The sincere reformers hailed its searching character as indicative of the honesty of its authors, and fruitful of good to the nation. The timid wavering reformers stood agliss, and so did all the champions of old abuses. Mr Hume, a fair representative of the radical party, said the plan of ministers had so far exceeded his expectations, that he felt himself bound to admit that they had completely redeemed the pledge which they had given. Mr Macaulay, speaking the sentiments of the young and highly educated liberals, thought it "a great, noble, and comprehensive plan." Lord Ebrington, the model of a sturdy, sagacious, independent country gentleman, "hailed the measure, as it gave due weight to every interest, and was calculated to stem the torrent of corruption." Sir R. Inglis, as the organ of the high-church party, declared that the "plan of the noble lord meant revolution, not reformation." Sir Charles Wetherell, as representative of the legal formalists, denounced the measure as "a corporation robbery." The debate on Lord John Russell's motion for leave to bring in a bill to amend the representation of the people of England, was kept up with extreme keenness for seven successive meetings, but terminated on the 9th of March without a division. Leave

was on the same evening given, after a short discussion, to bring in bills to amend the representation of the people in Scotland and Ireland. The English bill was introduced by Lord John Russell on the 14th of March, and read a first time; the same step was taken with the Scotch bill by the Lord Advocate on the 15th, and with the Irish bill by Mr Stanley on the 24th. The discussion on the second reading of the English bill was characterized by a yet more fierce and inveterate spirit of hostility to all reform, than that which took place when the measure was first propounded. After a debate which lasted for two evenings, the motion that the bill be read a second time was carried by a majority of one. The opposition, therefore, went into committee with a fair prospect of being able to mutilate, and finally defeat the bill. Their first demonstration was a declaration, moved by General Gascoyne, "that it is the opinion of the house that the total number of members returned to parliament for England and Wales ought not to be diminished." The General's motion was carried by a majority of eight; a result which intimated to ministers that they had not such a hold upon the house as afforded them the most distant chance of carrying the measure by which they stood pledged to stand or fall. In order to appreciate the propriety of the line of conduct adopted by them on this occasion, it will be necessary to look to the effect which the promulgation of the ministerial plan had produced upon the national mind.

The boldness of the measure, so much beyond what had been expected, had conciliated the radical party, of whom the unions may be considered as the representatives. Even the vital questions of the shortened duration of parliaments, and a secret mode of taking the votes, were postponed by one consent, lest any difference of opinion should endanger the success of so efficient a measure. The popular sense accepted the bills as satisfactory, and the nation crowded to their defence. Riot and destruction ceased; for every man was intent upon the prospect held out of good government and better days. The tables of both houses were loaded with petitions in favour of the bill. The more apparent it became that the Commons would not pass it, the more intense became the affection manifested by the people for its provisions. It was evident that they regarded it as the standard to which they were to look as a rallying point amid the whirls and eddies of the headlong fight in which they were engaged. With the people in such a mood, and the king remaining true to his promises, the ministers were quite safe in throwing themselves upon the sense of the electors by a dissolution of parliament.

But the intimation that such a step was in contemplation was received with anger and alarm by the opponents of reform. They were not prepared for so determined a measure; and notwithstanding their declarations that the bill was contrary to the national wish, they knew that the people were against them. The exhibition of petty anger which took place in both houses, but particularly in the Lords, on the day of dissolution, baffles all description. An eye-witness speaks thus: "A hope had remained that the project of stopping the king's speech, and interposing an address, might succeed. That hope rested entirely upon the speech being read by the chancellor or by his majesty in person. Suddenly the thunder of the guns was heard to roar, breaking the silence of the anxious crowds without, and drowning even the noise that filled the walls of parliament. In the fulness of his royal state, and attended by all his magnificent court, the monarch approached the House of Lords. Preceded by the great officers of state and of the household, he moved through the vast halls, which were filled with troops in iron mail, as the outside courts were with horse, while the guns boomed, and mar-

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tial music filled the air. Having stopped in the robing chamber in order to put on his crown, he entered the house and ascended the throne, while his officers and ministers crowded around him. As soon as he was seated, he ordered the usher of the black rod to summon the Commons; and his majesty, after passing some bills, addressed them. By those who were present the effect will not soon be forgotten, of the first words he pronounced, or the firmness with which they were uttered, when he said, that "he had come to meet his parliament in order to prologue it with a view to its dissolution!" He then with an audible voice commanded the lord chancellor to prorogue, which being done, the houses dispersed, and the royal procession returned amidst the hearty and enthusiastic shouts of thousands of the people.¹

In the state of the national mind, the result of the elections could not be doubted. "The bill, the whole bill, and nothing but the bill," was the war-cry of the reforming electors; and to this the candidates were called to pledge themselves at every open election. The Duke of Newcastle, who had formerly returned two members for Newark, and two for the county of Notts at large, found his interest reduced to four rotten borough seats, where no man could interfere with him. The Duke of Beaufort's brother, and his eldest son, both justly popular noblemen, were flung out, solely because they were opposed to reform. The Duke of Rutland's nominees were rejected in his own county. In Northumberland the minister's son, who had not ventured to enter the field at the preceding election, was returned, notwithstanding the indolence of his friends. In short, out of eighty-two county members, England returned seventy-six pledged to support the bill; the members for the cities and great towns were for it to a man. Ireland returned a great majority, and even Scotland a majority of friends to reform.

The success of the ministerial measure in a House of Commons so constituted was beyond a doubt. Its enemies, however, exerted every device to delay and baffle the English reform bill. By trifling motions pushed repeatedly to division, the opposition succeeded in retaining the English bill in the House of Commons from the 15th of June till the 22d of September, when it was finally agreed to by a majority of one hundred and nine.

The eyes of the people followed it with anxiety to the House of Lords. It struck at the roots of an influence which that body possessed over the house which ought to have been the representative of the people; and this influence, it was known, a majority of their number were resolved to preserve. When submitted to them, the bill was brought before a tribunal of prejudiced and interested judges. Its fate, if left to the House of Lords as then constituted, was sealed before the debate had begun. The nation knew this, and loudly and urgently was the necessity of a new creation of peers pressed upon ministers, but in vain. Earl Grey had determined to give his noble colleagues an opportunity of dealing justly by the nation.

The debate on the second reading commenced on the 3d of October, and continued during that and four succeeding evenings. The arguments brought forward against the bill were various and contradictory. After this long and fatiguing debate, the Peers of England, by a majority of forty-one, decided, in opposition to a majority nearly triple that amount of the House of Commons, and to the almost unanimous voice of the nation, that a system of cunningly veiled oppression and corruption should be perpetuated.

The indignation of the country was great, although happily prevented from breaking out into open violence by the firmness of ministers and the House of Commons. The chancellor of the exchequer declared in the House of Commons on the 10th of October, the earliest day on which that house assembled after the rejection of the bill by the Lords, "that unless he entertained a hope that a measure of reform equally efficient with that which had been rejected would be carried hereafter, he would not remain in office a single hour longer." Lord Ebrington brought forward the same evening a motion for a vote of confidence in ministers, which was carried by a majority of a hundred and thirty-one in a house of five hundred and twenty-seven; and the house by this means pledged to support ministers and the reform bill. On the 20th, parliament was prorogued by the king in person.

Owing to the firmness of the king, his ministers, and the House of Commons, the decision of the Lords was received by the people with deep-felt disgust; but, except in two or three isolated cases, without any alarming bursts of violence. At Derby the rabble broke open the town jail, and demolished the property of some anti-reformers, and were only prevented from the perpetration of further violence by the interference of the military. The castle at Nottingham, the property of the Duke of Newcastle, was burned by a band of rioters. Some rioting, but not of a very serious character, took place in Somersetshire and Devonshire. And at Bristol, the arrival of Sir Charles Wetherell, a strenuous anti-reformer, to discharge his judicial duties, excited a popular ferment, which, being met on the part of the magistrates at first with precipitate violence, and afterwards by cowardly supineness, hurried the populace on to works of extensive destruction. In every other part of the kingdom, however, large meetings were held, and perfect obedience to the law enforced.

Parliament re-assembled on the 6th of December 1831. In the speech from the throne, a speedy and satisfactory settlement of the question of reform was urgently recommended. The ministry adhered to their original purpose of remodelling the representation by three separate bills applicable to the varying social relations of the three incorporated nations. That which had for its object the reform of the English representation was introduced on the 12th of December. It was confessedly superior to the former in precision of expression; and some of the subordinate arrangements had been modified with a view to avoid the captious quibbling of the preceding session. The opposition modestly claimed all the improvements as their own, and yet attacked the measure as inveterately as ever. The ministerial members adopted the prudent resolution of leaving all the speaking to their opponents; but, nevertheless, the pertinacious volubility of these orators was so far successful in retarding the bill, that it did not pass through the House of Commons before the 22d of March.

It was carried up to the Lords with even more gloomy anticipations than on the former occasion. No new peers had been created. Lords Harrowby and Wharnccliffe, who had seemed at one time inclined to come to terms, resumed a hostile attitude. Between the first and second reading of the bill, however, these noblemen and their followers determined to make no concession to public feeling, and allow the bill to go into committee. In consequence of their wavering, the second reading of the bill was carried by a majority of nine, and the bill ordered to be committed the first day on which the house should

¹ *Edinburgh Review*, No. cxi. p. 484.

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sit after the Easter recess. The house, immediately after coming to this resolution, adjourned for the holidays. During the interval, the whole country was kept in a ferment by meetings assembled for the purpose of expressing their satisfaction that the bill had passed the second reading, and earnestly adjuring the Lords to give it the sanction of a law. These assemblages were more frequent, and attended by greater multitudes, than had ever previously been witnessed; and at all of them it was unequivocally declared that nothing would satisfy the nation short of the full measure introduced by Earl Grey.

While the people were thus openly busy, their enemies were privately at work with equal assiduity, and not without some success. Earl Grey, unsuspecting of the mine about to be sprung under his feet, moved, on the 7th of May, in a committee of the whole house, the adoption of the clause disfranchising all burghs having a population beneath two thousand. Lord Lyndhurst moved, as an amendment, the postponement of the first and second clauses until the question of enfranchisement should have been taken into consideration. The object of this manœuvre was to leave the opposition an opportunity of conciliating the unrepresented great towns before it proceeded to mutilate the bill. A suspicion to this effect was raised by the care which some noble lords took to vindicate the fairness of their intentions before any body had called it in question; and suspicion was rendered certain when Lord Ellenborough favoured the house with an outline of the plan of reform which he and his friends had in contemplation. Ministers were left in a minority of thirty-five. They immediately postponed the discussion, and next day recommended to the king, in prosecution of a former understanding, a creation of peers sufficient to insure the passing of the bill. His majesty refused, and ministers immediately resigned.

Lord Althorp no sooner announced the ministerial resignation in the House of Commons, than Lord Ebrington gave notice of a motion to address the king on the state of affairs next evening. The address which, in pursuance of this notice, his lordship moved, expressed the most entire confidence in the late ministry, warned the king of the unabated ardour of the nation in favour of reform, and prayed that no men might be called to his majesty's councils who were not prepared to carry into effect the reform bill, unimpaired in all its essential provisions. The debate which ensued was eminently characterized by boldness and determination on the part of the reformers. The address was agreed to by a majority of eighty, in a house of four hundred and ninety-six. The House of Commons was supported by the nation. Wherever the news arrived of the resignation of Earl Grey, and it was circulated with unexampled rapidity, the inhabitants rose in

mass, and feeling confidence in their representatives, petitioned them to stop the supplies; while it was announced in many places, that in the event of the House of Commons refusing to do its duty, no more taxes would be paid until the reform bill passed into a law. Not one act of rioting was perpetrated from one end of the kingdom to the other, but the orderly conduct of the assembled multitudes only made their anger the more terrible.

The Duke of Wellington undertook to form an administration which should take office upon condition of carrying through a large measure of reform. At the first hint of this project, the national indignation blazed up more fiercely; the more timid politicians shrunk from the side of their leader; the duke abandoned the task as hopeless; and the king was obliged to recall Lord Grey.

On the evening of Friday the 18th May, Lord Althorp announced to the House of Commons that ministers had again accepted office, after receiving assurance that every power would be placed in their hands which should be found necessary to secure the passing of the reform bill unimpaired. The discussions of the measure in the House of Lords, subsequent to this communication, were mere matters of form. Few of the amendments proposed were ever pushed to a division. Even the most obnoxious clause of all, that which gave members to the metropolitan districts, was carried by a majority of fifty-five, in a house of a hundred and twenty-seven. A creation of peers was not resorted to for the purpose of carrying the bill. In order to render that supposed evil unnecessary, a sufficient number of noble lords absented themselves from the house to leave ministers in a majority on the third reading. The few who remained, however, expressed in their speeches the concentrated anger of all the absentees. The royal assent was given to the English bill by commission on the 7th of June 1832.

The bills for Scotland and Ireland had been merely read a first time, and then allowed to lie over until the keystone of the arch, the English bill, had been secured. As soon as that object was attained, the discussions upon the other two were resumed. Those regarding the Scotch bill were little more than a mere matter of form, no serious opposition being offered. It received the royal assent by commission on the 17th of July. Greater difficulty threatened to arise on the question of the Irish bill, for a strong body of the Irish members were dissatisfied with the provisions for the extension of the franchise, regarding them as insufficient. A timely concession on the part of ministers conciliated the malcontents; and the bill passed the Commons on Friday the 20th of July. As no essential alterations are likely to be made by the Lords, England's new constitution of parliament may be regarded as established.

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BRITAIN, *New*, a large country of North America, called also *Terra Labrador*, has Hudson's Bay and Strait on the north and west, Canada and the river St Lawrence on the south, and the Atlantic Ocean on the east. It is subject to Great Britain, but yields only skins and furs. See HUDSON'S BAY.

BRITAIN, *New*, in the Pacific Ocean. See AUSTRAL-ASIA.

BRITANNICUS, son of the emperor Claudius by Messalina, was excluded from the empire after his father had married Agrippina, who placed her son Nero on the throne, and caused Britannicus to be poisoned, A. D. 55.

BRITTLENESS, that quality of bodies which subjects them to be easily broken by pressure or percussion.

BRIVE, an arrondissement of the department of the Corrèze in France, four hundred and six square miles in extent, and comprehending ten cantons and a hundred and one communes, with 93,858 inhabitants. The capital, Brive la Gaillarde, is on the left side of the Corrèze, on a beautiful plain, with a population of 5762 persons, employed chiefly in manufacturing muslins and other fine cotton goods.

BRIXEN, a city in the Austrian province of Tyrol and circle of Pusterthal, at the confluence of the rivers Eisack and Rienz. It contains a cathedral, four other churches, and a nursery for English ladies. It is situated in long. 12. 39. 30. E. and lat. 46. 40. N.

BRINHAM, a town of the hundred of Haytor, in the county of Devon, a hundred and ninety-nine miles from London, on the western side of Torbay. It is in a warm, sheltered situation, and during the war formed the place for watering the king's ships on that station. It is celebrated as the spot where King William landed in 1688. It has now a considerable fishery, and has become a place of resort for sea-bathing. The inhabitants amounted in 1801 to 3671, in 1811 to 4341, and in 1821 to 4503.

BROACH, a town and district of Hindustan, in the province of Gujerat. The district is situated principally between the 21st and 22d degrees of north latitude, and it is bounded on the west by the Gulf of Cambay. It is one of the best cultivated and most populous tracts on the west coast of India, and was finally acquired by the Bombay presidency by the treaty concluded with Seindia in 1803. This district, prior to its occupation by the British, was greatly exposed to robberies; but since its final cession in 1803 it has enjoyed almost uninterrupted prosperity. Its chief annoyance has proceeded from the adjacent countries, out of which such gangs of armed Bheels have issued as entirely to set at defiance the ordinary force of the police. The inhabitants of the district itself have been quiet, orderly, and industrious, and the land is remarkably high priced.

BROACH, the capital, is situated on an eminence on the north bank of the Nerbuddah, twenty-five miles from the entrance of the river. The houses are generally lofty, and the streets narrow and dirty. In the town and vicinity are many dilapidated mosques and mauseleums. The town has a considerable trade, and annually exports large quantities of raw and manufactured cotton to Bombay. Besides cotton, the principal exports are wheat, joazebe, rice, and other grains; nuts, oil seeds, and dyeing shrubs and plants. The water of the Nerbuddah is said to possess a peculiar property in bleaching clothes to a pure white; yet the muslins are inferior to those of Bengal, and the coloured chintzes to those on the Coromandel coast. In 1773 this city was besieged by a British force under General Wedderburne, brother to Lord Loughborough, who was killed under its walls. It was stormed a few days afterwards. In 1782 it was ceded, along with the district, to British; but was again taken possession of in 1803 by

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an army under Colonel Woodington, and has ever since remained in possession of the British. Broach is thought to have been the Barygaza of the ancients; and when it surrendered to the emperor Achar in 1572 it still continued to be a place of great trade. In 1780 it was about two miles and a half in circumference, and fortified in the oriental manner, with high walls, perforated for musketry, and flanked with towers; forming, with its natural advantages, an Asiatic fortress of considerable strength. The travelling distance from Bombay is two hundred and twenty-one miles, from Oojein two hundred and sixty-six, and from Poona two hundred and eighty-seven miles. Long. 73. 14. E. Lat. 21. 46. N.

BROACH, or *Brooch*, *Brocha*, from the French *broche*, denotes an awl or bodkin; also a large packing needle. A spit, in some parts of England, is called a *broach*; and from this word comes to pierce or broach a barrel. In Scotland, *broach*, *broche*, *brooch*, or *broche*, is the name of an utensil which the Highlanders used, like the *fibula* of the Romans, to fasten their vest or plaid. It is usually made of silver, of a round figure, with a tongue crossing its diameter, to fasten the folds of the garment; sometimes with two tongues, one on each side of a cross bar in the middle. There are preserved in several families ancient brooches of very elegant workmanship, and richly ornamented. Some of these are inscribed with names, with which particular virtues used to be attributed; others are furnished with receptacles for relics supposed to preserve the wearer from harm: so that these brooches seem to have been worn not only for use, but as amulets. One or two of this sort are figured and described by Mr Pennant, *Tour in Scotland*, l. 90, iii. 14, 3d. edit.

BROAD PIECE, a denomination given to certain gold pieces broader than a guinea; particularly Caroluses and Jacobuses.

BROADSIDE, in the sea-language, a discharge of all the guns on one side of a ship at the same time.

BROCADE, or **BROCADO**, a stuff of gold, silver, or silk, raised and enriched with flowers, foliages, and other ornaments, according to the fancy of the merchants or manufacturers. Formerly the word signified only a stuff woven all of gold, both in the warp and in the woof, or all of silver, or of both mixed together; thence it passed to those stuffs in which there was silk mixed, to raise and terminate the gold or silver flowers; but at present all stuffs, even those of silk alone, whether they be programs of Tours or of Naples, satins, and even taffeties or lustrings, if they be but adorned and worked with some flowers or other figures, are called *brocades*.

BROCADEL, or **BROCADEL**, a kind of coarse brocade, chiefly used for tapestry.

BROCCOLI, a kind of cabbage cultivated for the use of the table. See HORTICULTURE.

BROCHIE or **BROOCH**. See **BROACH**.

BROCK, among sportsmen, a term used to denote a badger. A hart, too, of the third year is called a *brock* or *brocket*; and a hind of the same year is called a *brocket's sister*.

BROCKLESBY, RICHARD, a physician of considerable reputation, was born in Somersetshire on the 11th of August 1722, and was descended from a respectable and opulent Irish family belonging to the sect of Quakers. He received his grammatical education at the academy of Ballymore, in the north of Ireland, and afterwards pursued his medical studies at Edinburgh and at Leyden; at which latter university he graduated in 1745, choosing for the subject of his thesis, *De Sævis aëne et morboæ*. In the following year he fixed his residence in London, with a view to practice; and in 1751 was admitted a licentiate of the Royal College of Physicians, of which he

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afterwards became a fellow, having previously received honorary degrees of doctor in medicine from the universities of Dublin and of Cambridge. The first publication by which he became known to the world was his *Essay on the Mortality of the Horned Cattle*, which appeared in 1746, and gained him considerable reputation; and his practice extended itself with that gradual and steady progress which affords the surest prospect of permanent and distinguished success. His benevolent attention to his poorer patients, and the general suavity of his manners, soon brought him into notice, and procured him the esteem of a wide circle of friends, especially among his professional brethren. In consequence of their recommendation of him to Lord Barington, he was appointed, in 1758, physician to the army; in which capacity he served in Germany during the greater part of the seven years' war, and in the course of it was chosen physician to the hospitals for British forces. The results of his observations during this period were published in 1764, under the title of *Economical and Medical Observations, from 1738 to 1763, tending to the improvement of Medical Hospitals*, in one volume octavo. He had already, however, given to the public many proofs of the activity of his mind and the variety of his attainments. The *Transactions of the Royal Society for 1747* (vol. xlv.) contain a letter of his on the Indian Poison sent over by Don Antonio de Ulloa; and the succeeding volume for 1747-8 contains a paper on the Poisonous Root lately found mixed with the Gentian. In the *Transactions for 1755* (vol. xlix.) are inserted his Experiments on the Sensibility and Irritability of the several parts of Animals. He also published, in different volumes of the *Medical Observations*, the following papers, namely, the case of a lady labouring under diabetes, in vol. iii.; experiments relative to the analysis of Seltzer water, and case of an encysted tumour in the orbit of the eye, in vol. iv. His *Dissertation on the Music of the Ancients* appeared in 1749, and his *Oratio Harveriana* in 1760.

Dr Brocklesby was appointed, by his patron and friend the Duke of Richmond, physician-general to the royal regiment of artillery and corps of engineers; an appointment that connected him much with the laboratory of Woolwich, which he always visited with pleasure. It was by his advice, indeed, that a professorship of chemistry was added to the establishment of the college; and it was also by his recommendation that the celebrated Dr Adair Crawford was nominated the first professor in this new chair.

The life of a medical practitioner, absorbed in the laborious duties of his profession, is seldom diversified with much incident; and Dr Brocklesby was now arrived at that period when the approaching infirmities of age demanded some relaxation from labour, and an exchange of the anxieties and fatigues of practice for the tranquil amusements of literature and the solace of cheerful society. The frugal use which he had made of means originally slender, but progressively augmenting by the increase of his professional emoluments, by the addition of a pension from the Duke of Richmond, his half pay from the army, and an estate which devolved to him on the death of his father, had placed him in circumstances not only independent, but affluent, and enabled him to derive from retirement all the advantages he had contemplated. His society was courted on all sides; and the circle of his friends comprehended some of the most distinguished literary men of the age. He was during the whole of his life intimate with Burke. His acquaintance with this extraordinary man began at the school where they were both educated, and soon ripened into the warmest and most durable friendship. He was also on terms of close intimacy with Dr Johnson, and attended him in his last

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illness with the assiduity and kindness of a friend. Dr Brocklesby is characterised in Boswell's *Life of Dr Johnson* as a man whose reading, knowledge of life, and good spirits, supplied him with a never-failing source of conversation; and several letters, addressed to him from Dr Johnson, are preserved in that entertaining work. One trait, however, is omitted, which does him great honour. Understanding that Dr Johnson wished, in the latter part of his life, to remove to the Continent for the recovery of his health, Dr Brocklesby immediately made him offer of an annuity of L.100 during the remainder of his life; and, when this offer was declined, pressed him to reside in his house, as more suited to his health than the one in which he then lived. The same generous disposition was manifested in his conduct to Burke, to whom he transmitted L.1000, as a legacy he had intended leaving him, but which he thought would be of more use to him at the present time. Dr Brocklesby was, indeed, the survivor of Burke, though only for a few months; for on his return from a visit which he paid to the widow of his friend at Beaconsfield, after dining with his two nephews, Dr Thomas Young and Mr Beely, of whose education he had taken the principal charge, he expired suddenly a few minutes after retiring to bed, without the least pain or previous illness. He left his fortune, which was considerable, between his two nephews, with the exception of a few legacies to friends and distant relations. (v.)

BROD, a town of Hungary, on the military frontier belonging to the military colony of the regiment of Brod, and giving its name to a district containing 62,000 inhabitants, mostly soldiers and their families. It is situated on the river Save, is fortified, and has a castle, a Catholic and two Greek churches, and 4100 inhabitants. Long. 17. 56. 20. E. Lat. 45. 10. 50. N.

BRODEAU, JOHN, in Latin *Brodaus*, a critic, on whom Lipsius, Scaliger, Grotius, and all the learned, have bestowed great encomiums, was descended from a noble family in France; and born at Tours in 1560. He was liberally educated, and placed under Aleat to study the civil law; but soon forsaking that pursuit, he gave himself up wholly to languages and the belles lettres. He travelled into Italy, where he became acquainted with Sadelet, Bembo, and other famous writers; and here he applied himself to the study of mathematics, philosophy, and the sacred languages, in which he made no small proficiency. Then, returning to his own country, he led a retired but not an idle life, as his many learned lucubrations abundantly testify. He was a man free from all ambition and vain-glory, and suffered his works to be published rather under the sanction and authority of others than under his own. His chief works are, 1. *Commentaries on the Anthologia*, Basel, 1549; 2. Several books of miscellanies; 3. *Notes on Martial*, Euripides, &c. Basel, 1558, Paris, 1561. He died in 1563, aged sixty-three.

BRODERA, or BARODAH, a large and wealthy town of Hindustan, in the province of Gujerat, district of Champaner, the capital of a Mahratta chief known by the family name of the Guicovar, who is an ally of the British, and divides with them the largest and finest portion of Gujerat, his particular share being a tract of about twelve thousand square miles in extent, and lying chiefly in the northern districts. The town is intersected by two spacious streets, which divide it into four equal parts, and cross at the market-place. The ruins of some handsome Mogul buildings are still to be seen; but those raised by the Mahrattas are mean and contemptible. Near the city is a stone bridge over the river Viewamitra, the only one in Gujerat, where the streams are generally crossed in ferry boats or on light floating platforms. In the environs are several magnificent wells, with steps

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down to the bottom. In 1780 the fortifications of this place consisted of slight walls, with towers at irregular distances, and several double gates. It is still weak and populous, and during the war with Scindia and Holkar in 1803 the native bankers advanced to the British armies a crore and a half of rupees, equal to about L.1,600,000 sterling. Provisions of all descriptions are cheap and abundant, and the population amounted in 1818 to 100,000. The founder of the present family of the Guicowar invaded the province of Gujerat in 1726, and in 1730 was confirmed in his conquest by Sahoo Rajah, the grandson of Sevajee, and the reigning sovereign of the Mahrattas. He was succeeded by his son Damajee, who in 1761 was present at the battle of Paniput, and was afterwards taken prisoner by the Peshwa Bajerow, to whom he was obliged to cede half of his territories, and to acknowledge his dependence for the other half. His successor was Futteh Singh, who, dying in 1789, was succeeded by his brother Manajee, who died in 1792, when another brother, named Govind Row, ascended the throne. He died in 1800, and was succeeded by his son Annund Row Guicowar, who in his turn was succeeded in 1814 by Futteh Singh Guicowar. The revenues of this petty sovereign were in great confusion when the British interfered and undertook the management of his affairs. Long. 73. 24. E. Lat. 22. 13. N.

BRODY, a large city of the circle of Lemberg, in the Austrian province of Galicia. It stands on the river Sucha-Wielkabacha, close to the Russian frontier, by which position it is enabled to carry on a most extensive contraband trade with that extensive empire. It is an ill-built and filthy place, containing about 18,000 inhabitants, one third of whom are Jews. There are four churches for the Greeks, one for the Catholics, and some synagogues for the Jews.

BROKE, SIR ROBERT, lord chief justice of the common pleas, was the son of Thomas Broke, Esq. of Claverly in Shropshire, and educated at Oxford, from which he removed to the Middle Temple, and soon became a very eminent lawyer. In the year 1542 he was chosen summer reader, and in 1550 double reader. In 1552 he was made serjeant at law; and in the year following, the first of Queen Mary, lord chief justice of the common pleas; about which time he received the honour of knighthood. Stow says he was recorder of London and speaker of the House of Commons; which is confirmed by a manuscript in the Ashmolean library. He died and was buried at Claverly in Shropshire, the place of his nativity, in 1558. Wood gives him the character of a great lawyer and an upright judge. His works are, 1. An abridgment containing an abstract of the year-books till the time of Queen Mary; 2. Certain cases adjudged in the reign of Henry VIII. Edward VI. and Queen Mary; 3. Reading on the statute of limitations. 32 Hen. VIII. c. 2.

BROKER. The origin of this word is contested, some deriving it from the French *broier*, "to grind;" others from *broccard*, "to cavil, or higgler;" and others again from a trader broken, and that from the Saxon *broc*, "misfortune."

A broker is an agent or intermediate person appointed for transacting special business on account of another, but somewhat different from an ordinary factor in functions and responsibility. Of this class there are various descriptions, exercising employments without the smallest analogy, though all are brought under the general name of brokers; and of these the principal are, exchange-brokers, whose province is to ascertain the rates and relation of exchange between countries; stock-brokers, who negotiate transactions in the public-funds; insurance-brokers, who effect insurances on lives or property; and pawn-brokers, who advance money on goods, on the condition of being

allowed to sell the goods, if the sum advanced is not repaid with interest, within a limited time.

BROMBERG, one of the governments into which the Prussian province of Posen is divided. It is bounded on the north by West Prussia, on the east by the present kingdom of Poland, on the south by the government of Posen, and on the west by the province of Brandenburg. Its extent is four thousand five hundred and six square miles, or two millions eight hundred and eighty-three thousand eight hundred and forty acres. It comprehends fifty-five cities and towns, and one thousand two hundred and fifty villages, thirty-two thousand eight hundred and twenty dwelling houses, with 279,360 inhabitants, of whom about 160,000 are Catholics, and the remainder Protestants of various sects, with 16,000 Jews. It is divided into nine circles, and is a part of the former kingdom of Poland. The soil is generally a light sand. The face of the country is level, and a great portion of it is covered with woods. The agricultural product is very small, scarcely sufficient for the subsistence of the inhabitants. The whole stock of cattle for this extensive district and its numerous population was in 1820 only 33,700 horses, 11,917 cows, and 45,475 sheep of all descriptions. The city of the same name, the capital of the government and of the circle of Bromberg, called by the Poles Bydgoscy, stands on an elevation near the navigable river Brahe. It is, for a Polish town, well built, and contains one Lutheran and two Catholic churches, a monastery, a nunnery, three hospitals, and five hundred and fifty-two dwellings, with 7554 inhabitants. It has some refineries for sugar, and a little trade in corn by means of its connection with the Vistula. Long. 17. 55. E. Lat. 55. 27. N.

BROME, ALEXANDER, a poet, and attorney in the lord mayor's court in the reign of Charles II., was the author of the greater part of those songs and epigrams which were published in favour of the royalists, and against the Rump, as well in Oliver Cromwell's time as during the rebellion. These, together with his epistles and epigrams translated from different authors, were all printed in one volume octavo after the restoration. He also published a version of Horace, by himself and others, which is very far from being a bad one. He left behind him a comedy entitled *The Cunning Lovers*; and the world is indebted to him for two volumes of Richard Brome's plays in octavo, many of which, but for his care in preserving and publishing them, would in all probability have been entirely lost. He died in 1666.

BROME, Richard, a dramatic writer who lived in the reign of King Charles I. and was contemporary with Dekker, Ford, Shirley, and others. His extraction was mean, he having been originally no better than a menial servant to the celebrated Ben Jonson. He wrote himself, however, into high reputation, as is testified, not only by various commendatory verses written by his contemporaries and prefixed to many of his plays, but also by some lines which his quondam master addressed to him on account of his comedy called *The Northern Lass*. Brome, in imitation of his master, laid it down as his first great point to apply closely to the study of men and manners. His genius was entirely turned to comedy, and therefore his proper province was observation more than reading. His plots are all his own, and are far from being ill conducted; and his characters, which for the most part are strongly marked, were the offspring of his own judgment and experience, and his close attention to the foibles of the human heart. The comedies which the author left behind him are fifteen in number, ten of which are collected together in two volumes octavo.

BROMELIA, the PINE-APPLE. See HORTICULTURE.
BROMLEY, a town in the hundred of Ossulton, and

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Bromley
Bronzing

county of Middlesex, two miles from London, on the high road to the eastern counties. The inhabitants amounted in 1801 to 2101, in 1811 to 2190, and in 1821 to 2349.

BROMLEY, a market-town in the hundred of the same name in the county of Kent, ten miles from London, on the Ravensbourne. Near it is a palace belonging to the Bishop of Rochester; and in it is an hospital for the widows of clergymen, who have, besides their dwelling, a pension of £50 per annum. The market is on Thursday. The inhabitants amounted in 1801 to 2700, in 1811 to 3011, and in 1821 to 3147.

BROMSGROVE, a market-town in the hundred of Halshire, and county of Worcester, a hundred and seventeen miles from London. It is a borough, and formerly sent members to parliament. It stands on the edge of a black heath, but chiefly depends on some manufactures of nails, needles, and hats. The market is on Tuesday. The inhabitants amounted in 1801 to 5698, in 1811 to 6201, and in 1821 to 7519.

BROMYARD, a market-town in the hundred of Broxash, and county of Hereford, a hundred and twenty-five miles from London, on the river Frome. It is a poor place, but situated in the finest part of the cider orchards. The market is on Tuesday. The inhabitants amounted in 1801 to 983, in 1811 to 1101, and in 1821 to 1227.

BRONNIZY, a circle in the Russian government of Moscow, extending over one thousand four hundred and seventy-eight square miles. It contains two cities, and five hundred and twenty-five villages, with 176,500 inhabitants. The chief place, of the same name, is situated on the Mosqua, near the lake of Beloe, and has a population of about 2000 persons. Long. 27. 55. E. Lat. 55. 20. N.

BRONTE, a city in the intendency of Catania, in Sicily. It stands in a healthy situation on the river Giarretta, near a celebrated water-fall. It is an industrious place, where linen and woollen cloths, and some kinds of paper, are made. Good wine is produced in the neighbourhood. It gave the title of duke to the late Lord Nelson. The population amounts to 9400 persons.

BRONTIUM, in *Grecian Antiquity*, a place underneath the floor of the theatres, in which were kept brazen vessels full of stones and other materials, with which they imitated the noise of thunder.

BRONTOLOGY denotes the doctrine of thunder, or an explanation of its causes, phenomena, &c. together with the presages drawn from it.

BRONZING. A combination of metals which has received the name of bronze was employed by the ancients in the fabrication of different utensils, and in casting busts, statues, and other subjects, either larger or smaller than life. The Egyptians, Greeks, and Romans, nations which subsisted long and were familiar with the most refined state of the arts, used this compound metal in the greater part of the decorations of those magnificent temples and palaces whose ruins only have remained to later eras. But amidst the general wreck there are still some fragments preserved, which indicate the perfection which had been attained in the employment of bronze. The wealth of some ancient cities was estimated by the number of their brazen statues; and Delphos, Athens, and Rhodes, are reported to have each possessed three thousand. Some distinguished Romans adorned the public edifices of their city in this manner; and so strong a propensity was excited for multiplying works of this kind, that an observation became current, that in Rome the people of brass were not less numerous than the Roman people. It has been remarked, that the works which we now execute in iron or steel were little known to the ancients; that their arms and armour were usually of brass, or the compound now alluded to;

and that a set of surgeon's instruments consisting entirely of bronze was discovered at Pompeii.

Bronze is extremely hard, sonorous, more brittle than brass, and more fusible than copper, from which, and its not being liable to tarnish, it is peculiarly adapted for casts of statues. Various nations have compounded the metals employed in different proportions. The Egyptians are said to have taken two thirds of brass and one third of copper. According to Pliny, the bronze of the Grecians was formed in the same way, with the addition of one tenth part of lead and a twentieth of silver; which proportions were adopted by the Romans. In modern times bronze is generally composed of two thirds of copper and one third of brass, and sometimes small quantities of lead and zinc have been added. These latter render the cast more compact and brilliant; and the combination of different substances occasions the readier fusibility of the whole than when separate. The ancient bronzes, however, present a difference in appearance and composition from those executed by the moderns, and the fact is ascertained in respect to the metallic proportions, by skilful chemists on analysis. An illustration of this fact is sometimes given in the four celebrated horses of bronze, supposed to be the work of Lysippus, a Greek artist; which were brought from Venice, by command of Bonaparte, to the Thuilleries at Paris, and, on the fall of that extraordinary man, restored to their original position.

The casting of bronze statues is a nice and difficult art, requiring long experience and the judicious management of a great apparatus. An exact model must be made of the subject to be cast, and nicely coated over with wax not less than an inch thick, on which the artist works the impression meant to be taken. A mould is then formed, consisting of several hollow pieces of wood or other resisting substance, filled with a mixture of clay and sand, which is applied to the model, in order that its outline may be received. The mould being united together, is perforated by a number of channels, and the melted metal being discharged from a furnace by means of these into the interior, thus produces the cast. When cold, the external covering is taken off, and the subjects appear as if covered with spines, which are the channels filled with metal: these are removed by saws, files, and chisels; and any imperfections on the surface being corrected, the whole is completed. But this in detail is a tedious, laborious, and expensive process; and the difficulty of producing beautiful works in bronze conspires to give them a high value in the estimation of the lovers of the arts. In general, the natural colour of the composition remains unaltered, and with the lapse of time tends to black, or particular shades of green; but some artists render it black artificially, or give it a green colour from the first. It is the delicacy of the workmanship, however, that constitutes the value of bronzes, not the colour, because it is the former alone which constitutes the difficulty, and calls for the skill of the artist. Colossal figures are sometimes obtained in bronze; but more usually, when of very large dimensions, they are formed by the union of several pieces, and are hollow within; as is also the case with some of those of smaller size. Considerable premiums have been offered by the *Society for the Encouragement of Arts*, for promoting the execution of bronze figures in England, but few have been claimed. Nevertheless, British artists have produced several very creditable works, if we take the low condition of sculpture in view; but, either from want of skill or practice, neither the bronzes of this island nor those of the Continent can rival the masterpieces of antiquity. Perhaps it is only the best specimens which are preserved, and many of inferior note have been allowed to decay, or cease to attract attention; and in this way we may partly account for our own inferiority.

Bronzing

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bronzing.

The substances on which bronzing is employed are either metals, wood, ivory, clay, or plaster; but more general preference is given to wood or plaster. The colours are of various shades and intensity; their composition and application being in a great measure arbitrary, according to the will of the artist. This art is nothing but a species of painting, far from the most delicate kind; and, when applied to plaster figures, may be done either with or without cement, the latter rendering it more durable. One principal ingredient in bronzing is gold-powder, for the preparation of which the following receipt is given. A quantity of leaf-gold is ground with virgin honey on a stone, until the texture of the leaves be completely broken, and their parts divided to the most minute degree. The mixture of gold and honey is then removed from the stone and put into a basin of water, whereby the honey may be melted, and the gold freed from it; and the basin is allowed to stand at rest until the gold subsides. When it does so, the water is poured off, and fresh quantities are added, until the honey be entirely washed away; after which the gold is put in paper, and dried for use. This is the true gold powder; besides which, there is another, called German gold, in common use; and also a third, called *aurum mosaicum*, or *muscum*, greatly employed in bronzing, and which is thus prepared. A pound of tin, seven ounces of flour of sulphur, half a pound of purified quicksilver, and the same quantity of sal ammoniac, are taken as the necessary ingredients. The tin being melted in a crucible, the quicksilver is added to it; and, when this mixture is cold, it is reduced to powder, and ground with the sal ammoniac and sulphur, until the whole be thoroughly mixed. They are then to be calcined in a mattress, and the sublimation of the other ingredients will leave the tin converted into the *aurum mosaicum*, which is found at the bottom of the glass like a mass of bright flaky gold powder. Should any black or discoloured particles appear, they must be removed. The sal ammoniac used here must be very white and clean, and the mercury quite pure, and unadulterated with lead. These colours are commonly employed in bronzing; but when a shade more of a red, resembling copper, is required, it can easily be obtained by grinding a very small quantity of red lead along with them. Copper powder may be procured by dissolving filings or slips of that metal with nitrous acid in a receiver. When the acid is saturated the slips are to be removed; or, if filings be employed, the solution is to be poured off from what remains undissolved. Small iron bars are then put in, which will precipitate the copper from the saturated acid, in a powder of the peculiar appearance and colour of copper; and the liquid being poured from the powder, this is to be washed clean off the crystals by repeated levigations. In addition to these compounds, we may name gold size, which is of particular use in bronzing and several other branches of the arts. This is prepared from a pound of linseed oil, with four ounces of gum animi. The latter is gradually supplied in powder to the oil, while boiling; and it is necessary that it should be stirred with every successive dose, until the whole be dissolved and incorporated with the oil. The mixture is still allowed to continue boiling, until a small quantity, when taken out, appears of a thicker consistence than tar, and the whole being then strained through a coarse cloth, is put aside. When used, it must be ground with as much vermilion as will render it opaque, and, at the same time, diluted with such a quantity of oil of turpentine as will bring it to a proper consistence for working freely with the pencil.

In regard to the operation of bronzing itself, if a cement is to be used, the powders now described may be mixed with strong gum water or linseed, and laid on the subject with a brush or pencil; in doing which, some artists

recommend beginning at the bottom and proceeding upwards. By a different process, gold size, prepared with a due proportion of turpentine, may be taken, and the subject covered with it; then being allowed to dry very nearly, but still preserving a certain clamminess, a piece of soft leather wrapped round the finger is dipped in the powder, and rubbed over the work; or, what is judged preferable, it may be spread with a soft camel-hair pencil. The whole, now covered, must be left to dry, and the loose powder then cleared away by a hair pencil also. Here the principal nicety consists in ascertaining the proper period of dryness for applying the powder, as much of the effect depends on it. But this method of bronzing is esteemed better, because the gold size binds the powders to the ground, without any hazard of their scaling or rubbing off, which sometimes happens when gum or linseed is employed. The precise tint of bronzing is regulated by taste; and, indeed, a very perceptible difference appears both in ancient and modern statues, resulting either from age or the metallic proportions.

Bronzing on wood may be effected by a particular process, somewhat varying from the general rules. Prussian blue, patent yellow, raw umber, lamp-black, and pipe-clay, are ground separately with water, on a stone, and as much of them as will make a good colour put into a small vessel three fourths full of size, not quite so strong as what is called clean size in gilding. This mixture is found to succeed best on using about half as much more pipe-clay as of the rest; but this depends on taste and fancy in preferring a peculiar tint. The wood being previously cleaned and smoothed, and coated with a mixture of clean size and lamp-black, receives a new coating with the preceding ingredients, twice successively, having allowed the first to dry; afterwards the bronze-powder is to be laid on with a pencil, and the whole burnished or cleaned anew, observing to repair the parts which may be injured by this operation. Next, the work must be coated over with a thin lather of Castile soap, which will take off the glare of the burnishing, and afterwards carefully rubbed with a woollen cloth. The gangrenous appearance of the cavities is effected by slightly wetting them with a camel-hair pencil dipped in the lather, and then sprinkling them with a little dust of verditer gum. The superfluous powder may be rubbed off when dry.

In bronzing iron, the subject should be heated to a greater degree than the hand can bear, and German gold, mixed with a small quantity of spirit of wine varnish, spread over it with a pencil. Should the iron be already polished, it is necessary to heat it well and moisten it with a linen rag wet in vinegar, on purpose to obscure the glare, that the bronze-powder may be sufficiently incorporated with the surface. There are other methods of accomplishing the same object, as by employing some coloured mordant, when the iron is not to be exposed to heat, and spreading the bronze over the mordant, when half dry, with a pencil. Bronze is injured by humidity; and it is said not to preserve its proper quality beyond ten years; but it may be renewed, in which case the subject must be completely cleaned.

There is an analogous method of silvering casts of plaster of Paris, and other substances, which is also called bronzing, and conducted after the manner above described; but it is not in general reputed.

Conjectures have been entertained, that artists originally resorted to bronzing solely for the purpose of correcting the glare of colours; but this is exceedingly improvable; and it is certainly unnecessary to seek farther than the inducement of easily imitating metallic figures esteemed by the curious. This art has of late years come into very general use, and has received many improvements.

Bronzing.

Bronzes
&
Broom.

BRONZES, a name given by antiquaries to figures either of men or beasts, to urns, and in general to every piece of sculpture which the ancients made of that metal. We likewise give the name of *bronzes* to statues or busts cast of bronze, whether these pieces be copies of antiques or original subjects.

BROOKE, MRS, daughter of a clergyman of the name of Moore, was a lady as remarkable for her virtue and suavity of manners as for her great literary accomplishments. Her first performance, which introduced her to the notice and consequent esteem of the public, was *Julia Mandeville*; a work concerning which there were various opinions, but which every body read with eagerness. It has been often wished that she had made the catastrophe less melancholy; and we believe that she was afterwards of the same opinion, but she thought it unworthy of her character to alter it. Soon afterwards she went to Canada with her husband, who was chaplain to the garrison at Quebec; and here she saw and loved those romantic characters and scenes which gave birth to *Emily Montague*; a work most deservedly in universal esteem, which has passed through several editions, and which is now not easily met with. On her return to England, accident introduced, and congenial sentiments attracted her, to Mrs Yates; and an intimacy was formed which terminated only with the life of that lady. Mrs Brooke, in consequence of this connection, formed an acquaintance with Mr Garrick, and wrote some pieces for the stage. She had, however, great reason to be dissatisfied with his behaviour as a manager; and she made *The Excursion*, a novel which she wrote at this time, the vehicle by which she exhibited to the public her complaints. Her anger, we believe, was just, but the retribution was too severe. She herself afterwards thought so, for she lamented and retracted it. Her first dramatic performance was the tragedy of *Virginia*, 1756. Her next effort in that line was *The Siege of Synope*, a tragedy, introduced by Mr Harris, and written principally with the view of placing Mrs Yates in a conspicuous character. This did not altogether fail, but it did not become popular; it wanted energy, and it had not much originality; there was little to disapprove, but there was nothing to admire. Her next and most popular production was *Rosina*, which, in a most liberal manner, she presented to Mr Harris. Few modern pieces have been equally successful. Her last musical piece, entitled *Marian*, which was introduced by Shield, continued for some time to be occasionally exhibited. Mrs Brooke was also the translator of various books from the French. She was esteemed by Dr Johnson, valued by Miss Seward, and her company was courted by all the first characters of her time. She died in January 1789, two days after her husband. Her husband enjoyed the rectory of Colney in Norfolk, to which he had been preferred after his arrival from America.

BROOM denotes a well-known household besom or implement wherewith to sweep away dirt, dust, and the like. We say a *birch-broom*, a *hair-broom*, a *rush-broom*, a *hoath-broom*. The primitive kind of brooms, from which the denomination is given to all the rest, was made of the *genista* or wild broom growing on commons.

Broom-flower gives the denomination to an order of knights instituted by St Louis of France on occasion of his marriage. The motto was *Exultat humilis*, and the colour of the order was made up of broom flowers and husks, enamelled and intermixed with *fleurs de lis* of gold, set in open lozenges, enamelled white, chained together; and at it hung a cross efflorescence of gold. This answers to what the French called *Ordre de la Geneste*, from the name of a species of broom so called, different from the common broom, as being lower, the stalk smaller, and leaf narrow: the flower is yellow, and bears a long husk. Some also speak

of another order of the *Geneste* or *Broom* established by Broome. Charles Martel, or rather Charles VI.

BROOME, WILLIAM, the conditor of Pope in translating the *Odyssey*, was born in Cheshire, as is said, of very mean parents. He was educated upon the foundation at Eton, and was captain of the school a whole year, without any vacancy by which he might have obtained a scholarship at King's College. Being by this delay, which is said to have happened very rarely, superannuated, he was sent to St John's College by the contribution of his friends, where he obtained a small exhibition. At this college he lived for some time in the same chamber with the well known Ford, by whom Dr Johnson heard him described as a contracted scholar and a mere versifier, unacquainted with life, and unskilful in conversation. His addition to metre was then such that his companions familiarly called him *Poet*. When he had opportunities of mingling with mankind, he cleared himself, as Ford likewise owned, from great part of his scholastic rust. He appeared early in the world as a translator of the *Iliad* into prose, in conjunction with Ozell and Oldisworth. How their several parts were distributed is not known. This is the translation of which Ozell boasted as superior, in Toland's opinion, to that of Pope. It has long since vanished, Dr Johnson observes, and is now in no danger from the critics. He was introduced to Mr Pope, who was then visiting Sir John Cotton at Madingley, near Cambridge, and gained so much of his esteem that he was employed to make extracts from Eustathius for the notes to the translation of the *Iliad*; and in the volumes of poetry published by Lintot, commonly called *Pope's Miscellanies*, many of his early pieces were inserted.

Pope and Broome were to be yet more closely connected. When the success of the *Iliad* gave encouragement to a version of the *Odyssey*, Pope, weary of the toil, called Fenton and Broome to his assistance; and taking only half the work upon himself, divided the other half between his partners, giving four books to Fenton and eight to Broome. Fenton's books are enumerated in Dr Johnson's life of him. To the lot of Broome fell the second, sixth, eighth, eleventh, twelfth, sixteenth, eighteenth, and twenty-third, together with the burden of writing all the notes. The price at which Pope purchased this assistance was L.300 paid to Fenton and L.500 to Broome, with as many copies as he wanted for his friends, which amounted to L.100 more. The payment made to Fenton is known only by hearsay; Broome's is very distinctly told by Pope in the notes to the *Dunciad*. It is evident that, according to Pope's own estimate, Broome was unkindly treated. If four books could merit L.300, eight, and all the notes, equivalent at least to four, had certainly a right to more than L.600. Broome probably considered himself as injured, and there was for some time more than coldness between him and his employer. He always spoke of Pope as too much a lover of money, and Pope pursued him with avowed hostility; for he not only named him disrespectfully in the *Dunciad*, but quoted him more than once in the *Bathos*, as a proficient in the art of sinking; and in his enumeration of the different kinds of poets distinguished for the profound, he reckons Broome among "the parrots who repeat another's words in such a hoarse odd tone as makes them seem their own." It has been said that they were afterwards reconciled; but their peace was probably without friendship. He afterwards published a *Miscellany of Poems*, and never rose to very high dignity in the church. He was some time rector of Sturston in Suffolk, where he married a wealthy widow; and afterwards, when the king visited Cambridge, 1728, became doctor of laws. He was in 1738 presented by the crown to the rectory of Fulham in Norfolk, which he held with Oakley Magnus in Suffolk,

Brooming given him by Lord Cornwallis, to whom he was chaplain, and who added to the vicarage of Eye in Suffolk. He then resigned Fulham, and retained the other two. Towards the close of his life he grew again poetical, and amused himself with translating Odes of Anacreon, which he published in the Gentleman's Magazine, under the name of *Chester*. He died at Bath in 1743.

BROOMING, or BREAKING of a Ship, the washing and burning off all the filth she has contracted on her sides, with weeds, straw, broom, &c. when she is on the career, or on the ground.

BROOS, a town, the capital of a small district, to which it has given its name, in the Saxon division of the Hungarian province of the Seven Mountains. It contains a Greek, a Lutheran, and a Calvinistic church, five hundred and ninety houses, and 4560 inhabitants. Long. 23. 7. 28. E. Lat. 45. 40. 46. N.

BROSELEY, a market-town within the franchise of Wenlock, in the county of Salop, a hundred and forty-six miles from London, on the river Severn. It is a place of considerable trade in iron, having near it productive mines of that mineral, as well as of coal. It has a good market on Wednesday. The inhabitants amounted in 1801 to 4832, in 1811 to 4850, and in 1821 to 4814.

BROSSARD, SEBASTIAN DE, an eminent French musician. In the early part of his life he had been prebendary and chapel-master of the cathedral church of Strasburg, but afterwards became grand chaplain and also maître de chapelle in the cathedral of Meaux. There is extant of his a work entitled *Prodromus Musicus*, in two volumes folio. He was also author of a very useful book entitled *Dictionnaire de Musique*, printed at Amsterdam, in folio, 1708; and afterwards at the same place in octavo, without a date. At the end of this book is a catalogue of authors ancient and modern, to the amount of nine hundred, who have written on music, divided into classes; wherein are interspersed many curious observations of the author relating to the history of music. From M. Boivin's *Catalogue Général des Livres de Musique* for the year 1789, it appears that Brossard was the author of two sets of motets, as also of nine *Leçons de Ténébres*, therein mentioned. It seems that these several publications were made at a time when the author was far advanced in years; for Walther takes notice that in the *Mercurius Galante* he is mentioned as an abbé and composer as early as the year 1678. He died on the 10th August 1730, aged upwards of seventy.

BROSSES, CHARLES DE, first president of the parliament of Burgundy, was born at Dijon on the 17th of February 1707. He studied law at a view to the magistracy, but without neglecting literature and the sciences, to which he discovered an early and decided attachment. His study of the Roman history excited in him a strong desire to visit Italy, which he accordingly traversed in 1739, in company with his friend M. de Sainte-Palaye. On his return to France he published his *Lettres sur l'Etat Actuel de la Ville Souterraine d'Herculanum*, Dijon, 1750, 8vo; the first work which had appeared upon that interesting subject. A collection of letters, written during his Italian tour, entitled *Lettres Historiques et Critiques*, in three vols. 8vo, was published at Paris after his death without the consent of his family. In 1760 he published a dissertation *Sur le Culte des Dieux Fétiches*, 12mo, which was afterwards inserted in the *Encyclopédie Méthodique*. At the solicitation of his friend Buffon, De Brosses undertook his *Histoire des Navigations aux Terres Australes*, which was published in 1756, in two vols. 4to, with maps, by Robert de Vaugondy. It was in this work that De Brosses first laid down the geographical divisions of Australasia and Polynesia, which were afterwards adopted by Pinkerton and succeeding geographers. In 1765 appeared his *Traité*

de la Formation Mécanique des Langues; a work distinguished by much research, and containing many ingenious hypotheses; but, at the same time, marked by that love of theory which is so apt to imbue the cultivators of etymological sciences.

De Brosses had been occupied, during a great part of his life, in making a translation of Sallust, and in attempting to supply the chasms in that celebrated historian. At length, in 1777, he published *L'Histoire du 7e Siècle de la République Romaine*, three vols. 4to; a work which would probably have met with great success had the style corresponded with the interest of the subject, and with the author's historical sagacity and depth of research. To the history is prefixed a learned life of Sallust, which was reprinted at the commencement of the translation of that historian by De Lamalle. After the death of De Brosses a supplement was added to this work, from his MSS. containing the various readings, fragments, and an index of the authors from whom they are taken. This supplement, which should be placed at the end of the third volume, is wanting in some copies.

These literary occupations did not prevent De Brosses from discharging with ability his official duties, nor from carrying on a constant and extensive correspondence with the most distinguished literary characters of his time. During the leisure afforded him by the suspension of the parliaments in the year 1771, he applied himself with greater vigour to literature. In 1758 he succeeded the Marquis de Caumont in the *Académie des Belles Lettres*; but was never admitted a member of the French Academy, in consequence, it is said, of the opposition of Voltaire, who entertained a dislike to him.

De Brosses died on the 7th of May 1777. He was a man no less distinguished for ease and vivacity in the general intercourse of society, than for the extent and variety of his literary attainments. Besides the works we have already mentioned, he wrote several memoirs and dissertations in the collections of the Academy of Inscriptions, and in those of the Academy of Dijon. He also contributed a number of articles to the *Dictionnaire Encyclopédique*, on the subjects of grammar, etymology, music, &c.; and he left behind him several MSS. which were unfortunately lost during the revolution. (See the *Bibliographie Universelle*.)

BROTHER, Frater, a term of relation between two male children, sprung from the same father, or mother, or both. Scaliger and Vossius derive *frater* from *frangere*, for *frangere*, which properly signifies a person who draws water in the same well; *frangere*, in Greek, signifying *seel*, and *frangere*, a company of people who have a right to draw water out of the same well. The word, it is said, came originally from the city Argos, where there were only a few wells distributed in certain quarters of the city, to which those of the same neighbourhood alone repaired.

By the civil law, brothers and sisters stand in the second degree of consanguinity; by the canon law they are in the first degree. By the Mosaic law the brother of a man who died without issue was obliged to marry the widow of the deceased. Deuter. xxv. 7. The ancients applied the term brother indifferently to almost all who stood related in the collateral line, as uncles and nephews, cousin Germans, and the like. This we learn not only from a great many passages in the Old Testament, but also from profane authors. Cicero, in his *Philippics*, says, Antonia was both wife and sister of Mark Antony, because she was daughter of his brother C. Antonius. And as to cousins, Tullus Hostilius, in Dionysius Halicarnassensis, calls the Horatii and Curiatii brothers, because they were sisters' children. The language of the Jews, Bishop Pearson observes, included in the name of brethren not only the

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Brothers strict relation of fraternity, but also the larger one of consanguinity. We are brethren, says Abraham to Lot, Gen. xiii. 8, whereas Lot was only his nephew. So Jacob told Rachel that he was her father's brother, Gen. xxix. 12, whereas he was only her father's nephew. This consideration has been urged with good advantage against the Antidicomarianites, who, from the mention made of the brethren of Jesus, John ii. 12, Matt. xii. 46, have impugned the perpetual virginity of the mother of Christ. Among us it is customary for kings to give the title of brother to each other; the unction in coronation being esteemed to create a kind of brotherhood. Nor is the custom modern. Menander mentions a letter of Cosroes king of Persia to the emperor Justinian, beginning thus: "Cosroes, king of kings, to the emperor Justinian my brother." Kings now also give the same appellation to the electors of the empire. In the civil law, brothers, *fratres*, in the plural, sometimes comprehends sisters; as *Lucius et Titia, fratres; tres fratres, Titius, Mæcius, et Seia*.

Foster-BROTHERS, those who have been suckled by the same nurse. The French call them *fratres du lait*, or brothers by milk; which is most properly used in respect of a person who had been suckled by a nurse at the same time with the nurse's own child.

BROTHER was also used by the writers of the middle ages for a *comes*, or governor of a province.

BROTHER is applied, in a less proper sense, to denote a person of the same profession; in which sense judges, bishops, priests, call each other *brothers*.

BROTHER is also a customary term by which priests of the same persuasion address one another; but it is more particularly used to denote the relation between monks of the same convent; as *Brother Zachary*. In English we more usually say *Friar Zachary*, from the French word *frère*, brother. Preachers also call their hearers *my brethren*, or *my dear brethren*. This appellation is borrowed from the primitive Christians, who all called each other *brothers*. But it is now principally used for such of the religious as are not priests; those in orders are generally honoured with the title of *father*, whereas the rest are only simple brothers.

BROTHER is also an appellation more peculiarly given to certain orders of religious.

BROTHERS of Arms, an appellation given to those who contract a kind of fraternity in war, obliging themselves to the mutual service and assistance of each other. In the military orders the knights are also called *brothers*. In the order of Malta there is a particular class who are called *serving brothers*, consisting of such as cannot give proof of their nobility. In Latin they are denominated *fratres clientæ*.

BROTHERS of the Rosy Cross. See **ROSYCRUCIANS**.
BROTTEKÖDE, a market-town of the circle of Schmal-kald, in Hesse-Cassel. It stands on the river Lauderbach, and contains 2860 inhabitants, employed in various minor manufactures.

BROUGH, a market-town in the east ward of the county of Westmoreland, two hundred and sixty-two miles from London. It is on a brook running into the Eden two miles below the town. Near it are the ruins of a castle belonging to the Earl of Thanet, the prospects around which are very magnificent. It has a market on Tuesday. The inhabitants amounted in 1801 to 694, in 1811 to 758, and in 1821 to 940.

BROUGHTON, THOMAS, a learned divine, and one of the original writers of the *Biographia Britannica*, was born at London, July 5, 1704, in the parish of St Andrew, Holborn, of which parish his father was minister. At an early age he was sent to Eton School, where he soon distinguished himself by the acuteness of his genius and the studi-

ousness of his disposition. Being superannuated on this foundation, he removed about 1722 to the university of Cambridge; and, for the sake of scholarship, entered himself of Caius College. Here two of the principal objects of his attention were the acquisition of knowledge of the modern languages, and the study of the mathematics, under the famous Professor Sanderson. In May 1727, Mr Broughton, after taking the degree of bachelor of arts, was admitted to deacon's orders, and in the succeeding year was ordained priest, and proceeded to the degree of M.A. At this time he removed from the university to the curacy of Olney in Hertfordshire. In 1739 he was instituted to the rectory of Steptington, otherwise Sibington, in the county of Huntingdon, on the presentation of John duke of Bedford, and was appointed one of that nobleman's chaplains. Soon afterwards he was chosen reader to the Temple, by which means he became known to Bishop Sherlock, then master of it, and who conceived so high an opinion of our author's merit, that in 1744 this eminent prelate presented Mr Broughton to the valuable vicarage of Bedminster, near Bristol, together with the chapels of St Mary Redcliff, St Thomas, and Abbot's Leigh annexed. Some short time afterwards he was collated, by the same patron, to the prebend of Bedminster and Redcliff, in the cathedral of Salisbury. Upon receiving this preferment he removed from London to Bristol, where he married the daughter of Thomas Harris, clerk of that city, by whom he had seven children, six of whom survived him. He resided on his living till his death, which happened on the 21st December 1774, in the seventy-first year of his age. He was interred in the church of St Mary Redcliff.

From the time of Mr Broughton's quitting the university till he was considerably advanced in life, he was engaged in a variety of publications, of which a list is given in the *Biographia Britannica*, second edition. Some little time before his death he composed "a short view of the principles upon which Christian churches require, of their respective clergy, subscription to established articles of religion;" but this work never appeared in print. He possessed, likewise, no inconsiderable talent for poetry, as is evident from many little fugitive pieces in manuscript, found among his papers; and particularly from two unfinished tragedies, both written at the age of seventeen. He was a great lover of music, particularly the ancient; which introduced him to the knowledge and acquaintance of Mr Handel, whom he furnished with the words for many of his compositions. In his public character Mr Broughton was distinguished by an active zeal for the Christian cause, joined with a moderation of mind. In private life he was devoted to the interests and happiness of his family; and was of a mild, cheerful, and liberal temper. In 1778 a posthumous volume of sermons, on select subjects, was published by his son, the Rev. Thomas Broughton, M.A. of Wadham College, Oxford.

BROUKHUSIUS, JANUS, or **JOHN BROEKHUIZEN**, a distinguished scholar in Holland, was born on the 20th November 1649, at Amsterdam, where his father was a clerk in the admiralty. He learned the Latin tongue under Hadrian Familus, and made a prodigious progress in polite literature; but, his father dying when he was very young, he was taken from literary pursuits, and placed with an apothecary at Amsterdam, with whom he lived several years. But not liking the pestle and mortar, he went into the army, where his behaviour raised him to the rank of lieutenant-captain; and, in 1674, he was sent with his regiment to America in the fleet under Admiral de Ruyter, but returned to Holland the same year. In 1678 he was sent to the garrison at Utrecht, where he contracted a friendship with the celebrated Grævius; and here, though a person of an excellent temper, he had the mis-

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fortune to be so deeply engaged in a duel, that, according to the laws of Holland, his life was forfeited; but Grævius wrote immediately to Nicholas Heinsius, who obtained his pardon from the stadtholder. Not long afterwards he became a captain of one of the companies then at Amsterdam; which post placed him in an easy situation, and gave him leisure to pursue his studies. His company being disbanded in 1697, a pension was granted him, upon which he retired to a country-house near Amsterdam, where he saw but little company, and spent his time among books. He died on the 15th December 1707, at the age of fifty-eight.

As a classical editor, he is distinguished by his labours upon Tibullus and Propertius: the latter was published in 1702, the former in 1708. He was an excellent Latin poet himself, and a volume of his poems was published at Utrecht, 1684, in 12mo; but a very noble edition of them was given by Van Hoostrat, at Amsterdam, 1711, in 4to. His Dutch poems were also published at Amsterdam, 1712, in 8vo, by the same person, who prefixed his life, extracted from the funeral oration pronounced over him by Peter Burman. Broukhusius was also an editor of Sannazarus's and Palæarius's Latin works. With regard to his Latin poems, the authors of the *Journal de Trévoux* have observed that his verses are written in good enough Latin, but want fire, and that the author was a poet by art, not by nature; an observation which is applicable to the bulk of modern Latin poems.

BROUNCKER, or BROUNCKER, WILLIAM, lord viscount of Castle-Lyons, in Ireland, and the first president of the Royal Society, was the son of Sir William Brouncker, knight, and born about the year 1620. He was distinguished by his knowledge of the mathematics, and by the considerable posts of honour and profit he enjoyed after the restoration; for he had at the same time the office of chancellor to the queen and the keeping of her great seal, that of one of the commissioners of the navy, and master of St Catharine's Hospital, near the Tower of London. He wrote, 1. Experiments on the recoiling of Guns; 2. An algebraical paper upon the squaring of the Hyperbola; and several letters to Dr Usher, archbishop of Armagh. He died in 1684.

BROUSSONET, PIERRE MARIE AUGUSTE, a distinguished French naturalist, born at Montpellier on the 28th February 1761. His father was a respectable schoolmaster in that town, who, perceiving the avidity with which he received instruction of every kind, took pains to store his mind with knowledge at an early age. It appears from his writings that he was at first educated for the medical profession. The opinion entertained in the university of the success with which he pursued his studies, was proved by his being appointed to fill a professor's chair when he was only eighteen years of age. So great, indeed, was the reputation he had acquired, that when he offered himself as candidate a few years afterwards for a seat in the Academy of Sciences, he was elected a member by an unanimous vote; a circumstance which had hitherto been without example since the foundation of that learned body. Botany seems to have been the science to which he was at first chiefly devoted; and he laboured with much zeal to establish the system of Linnaeus in France. In pursuit of this great object, and with the view of extending his knowledge of the science, he visited Paris, and studied every museum and collection from which he could derive instruction in the different branches of natural history. He next came to England, where he was admitted in 1782 an honorary member of the Royal Society. It was also at this period that he published at London his work on fishes, describing the most rare species of this class of animals, under the title of *Ichthyologia, seu Piscium Descriptions et Icones*. On his return to Paris he was appointed perpetual secretary to the Society of Agriculture,

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an office which the intendant Berthier de Sauvigny purposely resigned that it might be filled by Broussonet.

A life thus dedicated to the pursuits of science was not likely to be chequered by any remarkable vicissitude. But the revolution, which soon broke out in France, and for a long time unhinged all the ordinary relations of society, had already involved in its vortex not only the ambitious and the turbulent spirits of the nation, but also the peaceful votaries of science. In 1789 he was nominated a member of the Electoral College of Paris, an office which required him to serve as magistrate whenever his colleagues were in need of assistance in the exercise of their functions. On the first day when he was called upon this duty, as he was proceeding to the Hotel de Ville, he had the misfortune to see his friend and protector Berthier barbarously murdered by the populace. His own life was frequently exposed to great danger during the tumults that ensued, and when he had the charge of superintending the supply of provisions for the capital. In 1791 he had a seat in the legislative assembly; but, disgusted with politics, he quitted Paris the year following, and repaired to his native city. Persecution followed him in his retreat, and he was glad to effect his escape to Madrid, after encountering many dangers. But though well received and liberally assisted by the literati of that city, the malignity of the French emigrants, who could not pardon his having held any office under the revolutionary government, still pursued him, and drove him from Spain, and afterwards from Lisbon, where he had sought another asylum. He at last went out as physician to an embassy which the United States sent to the emperor of Morocco. He was furnished with the means of equipping himself by the generous assistance of Sir Joseph Banks, who, informed of his distresses, nobly sent him a credit for L.1000. After residing for some time at Morocco, during which he lost no opportunity of pursuing his favourite science, he obtained from the French directory permission to return to France; and he was appointed by their consul at the Canaries, in which capacity he resided for two years at Tenerife. On his return in 1797 he was chosen member of the institute, and was reinstated in his botanical professorship at Montpellier, with the direction of the botanical garden. He was afterwards elected a member of the legislative body, and died of apoplexy on the 27th July 1807. France is indebted to him for the introduction of the Merino sheep and Angola goats.

Besides the work on fishes, already noticed, the following are his principal productions: 1. *Sur l'histoire des Respirations*, Montpellier, 1788. 2. *Essai sur l'Histoire Naturelle de quelques espèces de Moines*, décrite à la manière de Linné, 8vo, 1784, which is a translation of a Latin satire on the monks, the original of which appeared in Germany in 1783. 3. *Année rurale, ou Calendrier à l'usage des Cultivateurs*, in 2 vols. 12mo. Paris 1787-8. 4. *Notes pour servir à l'Histoire de l'Ecole de Médecine de Montpellier pendant l'an VI.* 8vo, Montpellier, 1795. He was also a conductor, conjointly with Parmentier, Dubois, and Lefebvre, of *La Feuille du Cultivateur*, in 8 vols. 4to, published in 1788 and the following years. (v.)

BROWN, ROBERT, a schismatic divine, the founder of the Brownists, a numerous sect of dissenters in the reign of Queen Elizabeth. He was the son of Mr Anthony Brown of Tolthorp in Rutlandshire, whose father obtained the singular privilege of wearing his cap in the king's presence, by a charter of Henry VIII. Robert was educated at Cambridge, in Corpus Christi, or, according to Collier, in Bennet College, and was afterwards a schoolmaster in Southwark. About the year 1580 he began to promulgate his principles of dissension from the established church; and the following year he preached at Norwich,

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Brown. where he soon accumulated a numerous congregation. He was violent in his abuse of the church of England, and pretended to divine inspiration, alleging that he alone was the sure guide to heaven. This new sect daily increasing, Dr Frenke, bishop of Norwich, with other ecclesiastical commissioners, called our apostle before them. He was insolent to the court, and they committed him to the custody of the sheriff's officer; but he was released at the intercession of lord treasurer Burghley, to whom it seems he was related. Brown now left the kingdom, and, with permission of the states, settled at Middleburg in Zealand, where he formed a church after his own plan, and preached without molestation; but here persecution, the natural stimulus of fanaticism, was wanting. In 1585 we find him again in England; for in that year he was cited to appear before Archbishop Whitgift, and, seeming to comply with the established church, was, by Lord Burghley, sent home to his father; but relapsing into his former obstinacy, his aged parent was obliged to turn him out of his house. He now wandered about for some time, and in the course of his mission endured great hardships. At last he fixed at Northampton, where, labouring with too much indiscretion to increase his sect, he was cited by the Bishop of Exeterborough, and, refusing to appear, was finally excommunicated for contempt. The solemnity of this censure, we are told, immediately effected his reformation. He moved for absolution, which he obtained, and from that time became a dutiful member of the church of England. This happened about the year 1590; and, in a short time afterwards, Brown was preferred to a rectory in Northamptonshire, where he kept a curate to do his duty, and where he might probably have died in peace; but having some dispute with the constable of his parish, he proceeded to blows; and was afterwards so insolent to the justice, that he committed him to Northampton jail, where he died in 1630, aged eighty. Thus ended the life of the famous Robert Brown, the greatest part of which was a series of opposition and persecution. He boasted on his death-bed that he had been confined in no less than thirty-two different prisons. He wrote *A Treatise of Reformation* without tarrying for any, and of the wickedness of those teachers which will not reform themselves and their charge, because they will tarry till the magistrate command and compel them, by me Robert Brown; and two other pieces; making together a thin quarto, published at Middleburg, 1582.

Brown, *Ulysses Maximilian*, a celebrated general of the eighteenth century, was son of Ulysses, Baron Brown and Camus, colonel of a regiment of cuirassiers in the emperor's service, and descended from one of the most ancient and noble families in Ireland. He was born at Basel in 1705; and having finished his first studies at Limerick in Ireland, was in 1715 sent for into Hungary by Count George Brown, his uncle, member of the aulic council of war, and colonel of a regiment of infantry. He was present at the famous battle of Belgrade in 1717. Next year he followed his uncle into Italy, who made him continue his studies in the Clementine College at Rome till the year 1721, when he was sent to Prague in order to learn the civil law. At the end of the year 1723 he became captain in his uncle's regiment, and in 1725 lieutenant-colonel. In 1730 he went into Corsica with a battalion of his regiment, and contributed greatly to the taking of Callansara, where he received a considerable wound in his thigh. In 1732 the emperor made him chamberlain. He was raised to the rank of colonel in 1734, and distinguished himself so much in the war of Italy, especially at the battles of Parma and Guastalla, and in burning in the presence of the French army the bridge which the Marshal de Noailles had caused to be thrown over the Adige,

that he was made general in 1736. The following year, by an excellent manœuvre, he favoured the retreat of the army, after the unhappy battle of Banjulca in Bosnia, and saved all the baggage. His admirable conduct upon this occasion was rewarded by his obtaining a second regiment of infantry, vacant by the death of Count Francis de Wallis.

On his return to Vienna in 1739 the emperor Charles VI. raised him to the rank of field-marshal-lieutenant, and made him counsellor in the aulic council of war. After the death of that prince, the king of Prussia entering Silesia, Count Brown with a small body of troops disputed the country with him inch by inch. He signaled himself on several occasions; and in 1743 the queen of Hungary made him a privy-counsellor at her coronation in Bohemia. He at length passed into Bavaria, where he commanded the van-guard of the Austrian army; seized Deckendorf, with a great quantity of baggage; and obliged the French to abandon the banks of the Danube, which the Austrian army passed in full security. The same year, that is, in 1743, the queen of Hungary sent him to Worms in quality of her plenipotentiary to the king of Britain, where he put the last hand to the treaty of alliance between the courts of Vienna, London, and Turin. In 1744 he followed Prince Lobkowitz into Italy; took the city of Veletri on the 4th of August, in spite of the superior numbers of the enemy; entered their camp, overthrew several regiments, and took many prisoners. The following year he was recalled into Bavaria, where he took the town of Wilshosen by assault, and received a dangerous wound in the thigh. The same year he was made general of artillery; and in January 1746 he marched for Italy at the head of a body of eighteen thousand men. He then drove the Spaniards out of the Milanese; and having joined the forces under Prince de Lichtenstein, he commanded the left wing of the Austrian army at the battle of Placentia on the 15th of June 1746, and defeated the right wing of the enemy's forces commanded by Marshal de Maillebois. After this victory he commanded in chief the army against the Genoese; seized the pass of Bocchetta, though defended by above four thousand men; and took the city of Genoa. Count Brown at length joined the king of Sardinia's troops, and, in conjunction with them, took Mont-Alban and the county of Nice. On the 30th of November he passed the Var in spite of the French troops; entered Provence; took the isles of St Margaret and St Honorat; and expected to have rendered himself master of a much greater part of Provence, when the revolution which happened in Genoa, and Marshal Belleisle's advancing with his army, obliged him to execute that fine retreat which procured him the admiration and esteem of all persons skilled in war. He employed the rest of the year 1747 in defending the states of the house of Austria in Italy; and after the peace in 1748 he was sent to Nice, to regulate there, in conjunction with the Duke of Belleisle and the Marquis de la Mina, the differences that had arisen with respect to the execution of some of the articles of the definitive treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle.

The empress queen, to reward these signal services, especially his glorious campaign in Italy in 1749, made him governor of Transylvania, where he rendered himself generally admired for his probity and disinterestedness. In 1752 he obtained the government of the city of Prague, with the chief command of the troops in that kingdom; in 1753 the king of Poland, elector of Saxony, honoured him with the collar of the order of the White Eagle; and the next year he was declared field-marshal.

The king of Prussia entering Saxony in 1756, and attacking Bohemia, Count Brown marched against him,

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Brown. and repulsed that prince at the battle of Lowositz on the 1st of October, though he had only twenty-seven thousand men, and the king of Prussia had at least forty thousand. Seven days after this battle he undertook the famous march into Saxony, to deliver the Saxon troops shut up between Pirna and Konigsstein; an action worthy of the greatest captains, ancient or modern. He at length obliged the Prussians to retire from Bohemia, for which he was rewarded by being made a knight of the Golden Fleece. Soon afterwards Count Brown hastily assembled an army in Bohemia to oppose the king of Prussia, who had again penetrated into that kingdom at the head of all his forces; and, on the 6th of May, he fought the famous battle of Prague, in which, while he was employed in giving his orders for maintaining the advantages he had gained over the Prussians, he was so dangerously wounded that he was obliged to be carried to Prague, where he died of his wounds, on the 26th of June 1757, at the age of fifty-two. There is reason to believe, that if he had not been wounded, he would have gained the victory, as he had broken the Prussians, and the brave Count Schwerin, one of their greatest generals, was slain.

Browns, William, an English poet of the seventeenth century, was descended from a good family, and born at Tavistock in Devonshire in the year 1590. After he had passed through the grammar school, he was sent to Exeter College, in the University of Oxford, in the beginning of the reign of James I. and became tutor to Robert Dornor, who was afterwards Earl of Carnarvon, and killed at Newbury battle on the 20th of September 1643. He is styled in the public register of the university, "a man well skilled in all kinds of polite literature and useful arts," *vir omni humana literatura et bonorum artium cognitione instructus*. After he had left the college with his pupil, he was taken into the family of William earl of Pembroke, who had a great respect for him; and he improved his fortune so much that he purchased an estate. His poetical works procured him a very great reputation. Among these may be mentioned:—1. *Britannia's Pastorals*. The first part was published at London, 1613, in folio, and ushered into the world with several copies of verses made by his ingenious and learned friends John Selden, Michael Drayton, Christopher Cook, &c. The second part was printed at London in 1616, and recommended by various copies of verses written by John Gleanville, who afterwards became eminent in the profession of the law, and others. These two parts were reprinted in two vols. 8vo in 1625. 2. *The Shepherd's Pipe*, in seven elegies; London, 1614, 8vo. 3. *An Elegy on the never-enough-bewailed death of Prince Henry, eldest son of King James I.* Mr Wood tells us that it is probable our author wrote several other poems, which he had not seen. It is uncertain when he died.

Browns, Thomas, of facetious memory, as he is styled by Addison, was the son of a farmer in Shropshire, and entered in Christ-church College, Oxford, where he soon distinguished himself by his uncommon attainments in literature. But the irregularities of his life not suffering him to continue long there, he, instead of returning to his father, went to London to seek his fortune. His companions, however, being more delighted with his humour than ready to relieve his necessities, he had recourse to the usual refuge of half-starved wits, scribbling for bread, and published a great variety of poems, letters, dialogues, and other compositions, full of humour and erudition, but often indelicate. Though a good-natured man, he had one pernicious quality, which was rather to lose his friend than his joke.

Towards the latter end of Brown's life, we are informed by Mr Jacob that he was in favour with the Earl of Dorset, who invited him to dinner on a Christmas day, with Mr Dry-

den and some other gentlemen celebrated for their ingenuity, when Mr Brown, to his agreeable surprise, found a bank note of £50 under his plate, and Mr Dryden at the same time was presented with another of £100. Mr Brown died in the year 1704, and was interred in the cloister of Westminster Abbey, near the remains of Mrs Behn, with whom he was intimate in his lifetime. His works have been printed both in 8vo and 12mo, making four volumes.

Browns, Dr John, a clergyman of the church of England, and an ingenious writer, was born at Rothbury in Northumberland in November 1715. His father, John Brown, was a native of Scotland, being descended of the Browns of Colstown, near Haddington; and at the time of his son's birth he was curate to Dr Tomlinson, rector of Rothbury. He was afterwards collated to the vicarage of Wigton in Cumberland, to which place he carried his son, who received the first part of his education there. Thence he was removed in 1732 to the University of Cambridge, and entered of St John's College, under the tuition of Dr Tunstall. After taking the degree of bachelor of arts with great reputation, being among the list of wranglers, and his name at the head of the list, he returned to Wigton, and received both deacon's and priest's orders from Sir George Fleming, bishop of Carlisle. Here he was appointed by the dean and chapter a minor canon and lecturer of the cathedral church. For some years he lived in obscurity; and nothing further is known concerning him than that in 1739 he went to Cambridge to take his degree of master of arts. In 1743 he distinguished himself as a volunteer in the king's service, and behaved with great intrepidity at the siege of Carlisle. After the defeat of the rebels, when several of them were tried at the assizes held at Carlisle in the summer of 1746, he preached at the cathedral church of that city two excellent discourses, on the mutual connection between religious truth and civil freedom; and between superstition, tyranny, irreligion, and licentiousness.

Mr Brown's attachment to the royal cause and to the Whig party procured him the friendship of Dr Osbaldeston, who was the only person that continued to be his friend through life; the peculiarities of his temper, or some other cause, having produced quarrels with every one else. When Dr Osbaldeston was advanced to the see of Carlisle, he appointed Mr Brown one of his chaplains.

It was probably in the early part of his life, and during his residence at Carlisle, that Mr Brown wrote his poem entitled *Honour*, inscribed to Lord Viscount Lonsdale. Our author's next poetical production was his *Essay in Satire*, which was of considerable advantage to him both in point of fame and fortune. It was addressed to Dr Warburton, to whom it was so acceptable, that he took Mr Brown into his friendship, and introduced him to Ralph Allen, Esq. of Prior Park, near Bath, who behaved to him with great generosity, and at whose house he resided for some time.

In 1751 Mr Brown published his *Essay on the Characteristics of Lord Shaftesbury*, dedicated to Ralph Allen, Esq. This was received with a high degree of applause, though several persons attempted to answer it. In 1754 our author was promoted by the Earl of Hardwicke to the living of Great Horkeley in Essex.

In 1755 our author took the degree of doctor of divinity at Cambridge. This year he published his tragedy of *Barbarossa*; which, under the management of Mr Garrick, was acted with considerable applause, although, when it came to be published, it was exposed to a variety of strictures and censures. This tragedy introduced our author to the acquaintance of that eminent actor, by whose favour he had a second tragedy, named *Athelstane*, represented at Drury-Lane theatre. This was also well re-

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ceived by the public, but did not become so popular as *Barbarossa*, nor did it preserve so long the possession of the stage.

In 1757 appeared his well-known *Estimate of the Manners and Principles of the Times*. The chief design of this performance was to shew, that a vain, luxurious, and selfish effeminacy in the higher ranks of life marked the character of the age; and to point out the effects as well as sources of this effeminacy. Several antagonists appeared, some of whom were neither destitute of learning nor ingenuity; though Dr Brown himself asserted that Mr Wallace, a clergyman of Edinburgh, was the only candid and decent adversary that appeared against him. In 1758 our author published the second volume of his *Estimate of the Manners and Principles of the Times*, containing additional remarks on the ruling manners and principles, and on the public effects of those manners and principles. The periodical critics, whom he had gone out of his way to abuse, treated him with uncommon severity; and such a multitude of antagonists rose against him, and so many objections were urged upon him, by friends as well as enemies, that he seems to have been deeply impressed, and to have retired for a while into the country. From the country it was that he wrote, in a series of letters to a noble friend, *An Explanatory Defence of the Estimate of the Manners and Principles of the Times*; being an appendix to that work, occasioned by the clamours lately raised against it among certain ranks of men.

In 1760 he published an *Additional Dialogue of the Dend, between Pericles and Aristides*; being a sequel to a dialogue of Lord Lyttleton's between *Pericles and Cosmo*. One design of this additional dialogue was to vindicate the measures of Mr Pitt, against whose administration Lord Lyttleton had been supposed to have thrown out some hints. Our author's next publication, in 1763, was *The Cure of Saul, a sacred ode*; which was followed in the same year by a *Dissertation on the Rise, Union, and Power, the Progressions, Separations, and Corruptions of Poetry and Music*. This is one of the most pleasing of Dr Brown's performances, and abounds with a variety of critical discussions. A number of strictures on this piece were published; and the doctor defended himself in a treatise entitled *Remarks on some Observations on Dr Brown's Dissertation on Poetry and Music*. In 1764 he published, in octavo, *The History of the Rise and Progress of Poetry through its several Species*; which is no more than the substance of the dissertation above mentioned. The same year Dr Brown published a volume of sermons, dedicated to his patron Dr Osbaldeston, bishop of London; but most, if not all, of these, had been separately published, excepting the first three, which were on the subject of education. In the beginning of the year 1765 the doctor again returned to politics, and published *Thoughts on Civil Liberty, Licentiousness, and Faction*. At the conclusion of this work the author prescribed a code of education, upon which Dr Priestley made remarks at the end of his *Essay on the Course of a liberal Education for civil and active Life*. The same year he published a sermon *On the Female Character and Education*, preached on the 16th of May 1766, before the guardians of the asylum for deserted female orphans. His last publication was in 1766, being a Letter to the Rev. Dr Lowth, occasioned by his late Letter to the right reverend Author of the *Divine Legation of Moses*. This was occasioned by Dr Lowth's having clearly, though indirectly, pointed at Dr Brown as one of the extravagant adulators and defenders of Bishop Warburton. Besides these works, Dr Brown published a poem on Liberty, and two or three anonymous pamphlets. At the end of several of his latter writings he advertised his design of publishing *Christian*

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Principles of Legislation; but he was prevented from executing it by his unhappy death. He put a period to his life on the 23d of September 1766, in the fifty-first year of his age, by cutting the jugular vein with a razor. Such was the end of this ingenious writer; but the manner of it, when some previous circumstances of his life are understood, will cast no stain on his character. He had a tendency to insanity in his constitution; and, from his early life, had been subject at times to some disorder in his brain, at least to melancholy in its excess.

Brown, *Simon*, a dissenting minister, whose uncommon talents and singular misfortunes justly entitle him to a place in this work, was born at Shepton Mallet, in Somersetshire, 1680. Grounded and excelling in grammatical learning, he early became qualified for the ministry, and actually began to preach before he was twenty. He was first called to be a pastor at Portsmouth, and afterwards removed to the Old Jewry, where he was admired and esteemed for a number of years. But the death of his wife and only son, which happened in 1723, affected him so as to deprive him of his reason; and he became from that time lost to himself, to his family, and to the world. His congregation at the Old Jewry, in expectation of his recovery, delayed for some time to fill his office; but at length all hopes were over, when Mr Samuel Chandler was appointed to succeed him in 1725. This double misfortune affected him at first in a manner little different from distraction, but afterwards sunk him into a settled melancholy. He quitted the duties of his function, and would not be persuaded to join in any act of worship, public or private. Some time after his secession from the Old Jewry he retired to Shepton Mallet, his native place; and though in his retirement he was perpetually contending that his powers of reason and imagination were gone, yet he was as constantly exerting both with much activity and vigour. He amused himself sometimes with translating parts of the ancient Greek and Latin poets into English verse; and he composed little pieces for the use of children: an *English Grammar and Spelling Book*; an *Abstract of the Scripture History*, and a *Collection of Fables*, both in metre; and with much learning he brought together in a short compass all the *Thematata* of the Greek and Latin tongues, and also compiled a Dictionary to each of those works, in order to render the learning of both these languages more easy and compendious. Of these performances none have been made public. But what showed the strength and vigour of his understanding, while he was daily hemoaning the loss of it, were the works composed during the two last years of his life, in defence of Christianity, against Woolston and Tindal. He wrote an answer to Woolston's fifth Discourse on the Miracles of our Saviour, entitled a fit Rebuke for a ludicrous Infidel; with a preface concerning the prosecution of such writers by the civil power. His book against Tindal was called a *Defence of the Religion of Nature and the Christian Revelation*, against the defective account of the one and the exceptions against the other, in a book entitled *Christianity as old as the Creation*. Mr Brown survived the publication of this last work a very short time. A complication of distempers, contracted by his sedentary life (for he could not be prevailed on to refresh himself with air and exercise) brought on a mortification, which put a period to his labours towards the close of the year 1732. Besides the two pieces above mentioned, and before he became ill, he had published some single Sermons, together with a *Collection of Hymns and Spiritual Songs*. He left several daughters.

Brown, *Isaac Hucins*, an ingenious English poet, was born at Burton-upon-Trent, in Staffordshire, on the 21st January 1703-4, of which place his father was the minister.

Brown. He received his grammatical instruction first at Lichfield, and then at Westminster; whence, at sixteen years of age, he was removed to Trinity College, Cambridge, of which his father had been fellow. He remained there till he had taken a master of arts degree, and about 1737 settled himself in Lincoln's-inn, where he seems to have devoted more of his time to the muses than to the law. Soon after his arrival there he wrote a poem on Design and Beauty, which he addressed to Mr Highmore the painter, for whom he had a great friendship. Several other poetical pieces were written here, and particularly his Pipe of Tobacco. This piece is in imitation of Cihber, Ambrose Phillips, Thomson, Young, Pope, and Swift, who were then all living, and is reckoned one of the most pleasing and popular of his performances. In 1744 he married the daughter of Dr Trimmell, archdeacon of Leicester. He was chosen twice to serve in parliament, first in 1744, and afterwards in 1748; both times for the borough of Wenlock in Shropshire, near which place he possessed a considerable estate, which came from his maternal grandfather, Isaac Hawkins, Esq. In 1754 he published what has been deemed his capital work, *De Antici Immortalitate*, in two books; in which, besides a most judicious choice of matter and arrangement, he is thought to have shown himself not a servile but happy imitator of Lucretius and Virgil. The universal applause and popularity of this poem produced several English translations of it in a very short time; the best of which is that by Soame Jenyns, Esq. printed in his Miscellanies. Mr Brown intended to have added a third part, but went no farther than to leave a fragment. This excellent person died, after a lingering illness, in 1760, aged fifty-five. In 1768 Hawkins Brown, Esq. obliged the public with an elegant edition of his father's poems, in large octavo; to which is prefixed a print of the author, from a painting of Mr Highmore, engraved by Ravenet.

Brown, Sir William, a noted physician and multifarious writer, was settled originally at Lynn in Norfolk, where he published a translation of Dr Gregory's Elements of Catoptrics and Dioptrics; to which he added, 1. A method for finding the Foci of all Specula, as well as Lenses universally, as also magnifying or lessening a given object by a given Speculum or Lens, in any assigned Proportion; 2. A Solution of those Problems which Dr Gregory has left undemonstrated; 3. A particular Account of Microscopes and Telescopes, from Mr Huygens, with the discoveries made in Catoptrics and Dioptrics. Having acquired a competence by his profession, he removed to Queen's Square, Ormond Street, London, where he resided till his death. By his lady, who died in 1763, he had one daughter, grandmother to Sir Martin Browne Folkes, baronet. A great number of lively essays, both in prose and verse, the production of his pen, were printed and circulated among his friends. The active part taken by Sir William Brown in the contest with the licentiates, 1768, occasioned his being introduced by Mr Foote in his *Devil upon Two Sticks*. Upon Foote's exact representation of him, with his identical wig and coat, tall figure, and glass stiffly applied to his eye, he sent him a card complimenting him on having so humbly represented him; but as he had forgotten his snuff, he had sent him his own. This good-natured method of resenting disarmed Foote. He used to frequent the annual ball at the ladies' boarding-school, Queen Square, merely as a neighbour, a good-natured man, and fond of the company of sprightly young folks. A dignitary of the church being there one day to see his daughter dance, and finding this upright figure stationed there, told him he believed he was Hierippus redivivus, who lived *anhelitus puellarum*. When he lived at Lynn, a pamphlet was written against him, which he nailed up against his house door. At the age of eighty, on St Luke's day

1771, he came to Batson's coffee-house in his laced coat and band, and fringed white gloves, to show himself to Mr Crosby, then lord mayor. A gentleman present observing that he looked very well, he replied, "he had neither wife nor debts." He died in 1774, at the age of eighty-two; and by his will he left two prize medals to be annually contended for by the Cambridge poets.

Brown, John, the founder of the Brunonian Theory of Physic, was born about the year 1735 or 1736, in the parish of Buncle, in Berwickshire, Scotland. His parents being in an inferior rank of life, while he was very young he was put as an apprentice to a weaver, the drudgery of which having either disliked, or discovering abilities which by cultivation would raise him to a more conspicuous station, his destination was changed, and he was placed at the grammar school of Dunse. Here he soon distinguished himself, and gave abundant proofs, by his ardour and success in the studies which occupied his attention, that he was worthy of being encouraged in literary pursuits. His parents belonged to that body of dissenters in Scotland called Seceders. Flattered with the rapid and successful progress which their son had begun to make in the acquisition of the Latin language, they destined him to the ministerial office among their own sect. With this view his education was for some time directed. But an accident, it is said, made him at once renounce this plan and the sect, the tenets of which, as will appear from this circumstance, are extremely rigid. So early as his thirteenth year, while at the grammar school, he was prevailed upon, though not without showing considerable reluctance, to attend a meeting of synod, one of the ecclesiastical courts of Scotland, which was held in the church of Dunse. This, in the estimation of the party to which he belonged, was a transgression which could not be passed over without notice. Young Brown was called upon to appear before the session, and required either to submit to ecclesiastical censure, or to suffer a sentence of expulsion. Too proud and indignant to yield to the one, or to wait for the other, he anticipated or prevented the effects of both, by declaring that he was no longer a member of the sect, and joined himself to the established church. From this time, it would appear, his religious ardour was much abated, and his rigid principles were greatly relaxed.

After this period Brown was for some time engaged as a private tutor in a gentleman's family in the country; and here, and as an assistant in the grammar school of Dunse, he remained till about his twentieth year, when he went to Edinburgh, and having passed through the previous necessary studies in the classes of philosophy, entered himself as a student of divinity in the university. His classical knowledge was now of real advantage to him; for while he resided in Edinburgh pursuing the plan of his studies, he was able to support himself by private teaching. In this situation he continued for some time, after which he resumed his former labours as assistant in the grammar school of Dunse for a year, and returned to Edinburgh about the year 1759, when he finally renounced the study of theology, and commenced that of physic.

During his medical studies, he supported himself by his own exertions. He was employed in giving private instructions to students who wished to acquire the habit of expressing themselves with facility and correctness in the Latin language, and to be thus prepared for the examinations which were conducted in that language, for medical degrees in the university. For this employment, as well as for translating inaugural dissertations into the same language, the previous studies and acquirements of Brown peculiarly fitted him. Thus occupied, he soon recommended himself to the notice of several of the professors, and particularly to that of Dr Cullen, whose patronage

Brown. and friendship he obtained in an eminent degree. The doctor not only employed him as a private tutor in his own family, but was extremely assiduous in recommending him to others. This situation afforded him an excellent opportunity of improving in medical studies by the conversation of that celebrated professor, and by the permission which was granted him of delivering to private pupils illustrations of the doctor's public lectures. In this way Mr Brown began to have full employment, and prosperity seemed to smile upon him. It was about this time that he married the daughter of a respectable tradesman in Edinburgh, and opened a house for boarding students. His house was soon filled with boarders, who were attracted by the hope of great benefit from his instructions and conversation. But here it soon appeared that he was unfit for the management of such concerns. By want of economy, or by misconduct, his affairs were soon greatly embarrassed, and at last terminated in total bankruptcy. Soured and irritated by this misfortune, and still more so, it is probable, by being disappointed of one of the medical chairs in the university, which he supposed had been occasioned by the interference of Dr Cullen, he quarrelled with his friend and patron, and from that moment set himself up as a keen opponent of his doctrines.

It was in the year 1780 that the first edition of his *Elementa Medicinæ* appeared. This work is a compendium of his opinions, which he continued for several years to illustrate by a course of public lectures. And as he now proposed to prosecute the profession of medicine by private practice and public instruction, it was found necessary to have a medical degree, as a testimony to the world of his qualifications. Having opposed and quarrelled with all the professors in the University of Edinburgh, there was little hope of his succeeding there; and he was therefore induced to make an excursion to St Andrews, when he took the degree of M. D.

But the terms on which Dr Brown lived with his medical brethren, and the unfortunate habits which were daily gathering strength, precluded him from all rational hopes of success, either as a private practitioner or a public teacher. He therefore turned his thoughts to London, and removed to that metropolis in the year 1786. Previous to 1788 he had delivered one course of lectures; for in October of this year he was cut off by a fit of apoplexy, on the day after he had delivered his introductory lecture to a second course. He died in the fifty-third year of his age.

Dr Brown possessed great vigour of mind, and seems to have been capable of considerable application. His talents, had they been directed to more practical and more useful objects, would have probably raised him to more eminent distinction, and rendered him a more valuable member of society. The style of his *Elementa* is harsh and unpolished. His meaning is often dark and ambiguous. But perhaps this want of perspicuity is as much owing to the subjects which he treated, the principles of which are far from being settled, as to the obscurity of his expression. He attempted an unbeaten path; it is not wonderful that he was often bewildered.

Brown. *William Laurence*, born at Utrecht on the 7th of January 1755, was the son of the Rev. William Brown, minister of the English church in that city, and of his wife Janet Ognivie, daughter of the Rev. George Ognivie, minister of Kierriemuir. The father, having been appointed professor of ecclesiastical history in the university of St Andrews, returned to his native country in the year 1757; and the son was in due time sent to the grammar school, but his early education was chiefly of a more domestic nature. The professor was regarded as a great proficient in Latin literature, and his public lectures were

partly delivered in that language. At the early age, we may safely say at the too early age, of twelve, his son became a student in the university. It is still a prevalent error in the same country, to send boys to college at a period of life when they are scarcely prepared for a high form in a well-appointed grammar school; and till we depart from this common practice, we shall have too much reason to regret the condition of our public seminaries of learning. Brown was however a youth of superior talents, and he possessed some domestic advantages beyond the ordinary lot. The branches of study to which he chiefly devoted his attention were classical literature, logic, and ethics; and notwithstanding his premature age, he passed through his academical course with no small distinction. Of the prizes distributed by the chancellor of that period, the earl of Kinnoull, he obtained a greater number than fell to the share of any other competitor. Two of his college friends were William Thomson, LL. D., well known in the literary world, and Mr Gray, who afterwards resided in a diplomatic capacity at some of the courts of Germany. When he was of five years standing, he became a student of divinity; and after a further residence of two years, namely in 1774, he removed to the university of Utrecht, where he not only prosecuted the study of theology, but likewise of the civil law. Leyden and Utrecht had long been eminently distinguished as schools of jurisprudence; and Mr Brown, whose views were liberal and enlarged, perceived the various advantages which a knowledge of the Roman law confers, not merely upon the professional lawyer, but even upon the classical scholar. From this study he frequently declared that he had derived essential benefit.

His uncle, Dr Robert Brown, had succeeded as minister of the English church at Utrecht; and after his decease, which took place in the year 1777, the magistrates of that city, in compliance with the general wishes of the congregation, offered the vacant charge to his young relation. This invitation he finally accepted, though not without some degree of reluctance. After having spent nearly a year in Scotland, where he was licensed and ordained by the presbytery of St Andrews, he was admitted minister of the English church at Utrecht in the month of March 1778. His congregation was highly respectable, but at the same time was far from being numerous, and consequently his sphere of professional utility was very circumscribed. We are informed that although the congregation seldom exceeded forty persons, his preparation for the pulpit was not less assiduous than at Aberdeen, where he had to address a larger audience; for he was of opinion that the minister of the gospel who cannot find, in the dignity and importance of his office, and in his attachment to the spiritual interests of his flock, however small, a stimulus to exertion sufficiently powerful, will never find it to what is termed a wider field, or what is considered as a more important station. As it was only incumbent upon him to preach once every Sunday, he possessed a sufficient degree of literary leisure; and he increased his income as well as his avocations by receiving pupils into his house. He was intrusted with the education of many young men of rank and fortune; nor is it superfluous to mention that one of these was the present Lord Dacre, of whom he has spoken in very favourable terms. His character and conduct were such as could not fail to secure the cordial attachment of his own little flock: he gradually extended his acquaintance among individuals distinguished by their talents and learning, as well as by their station and influence; and he enlarged his sphere of knowledge and observation by various excursions in France, Germany, and Switzerland. On the 28th of May 1786, he married his own cousin, Anne Eliza-

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Brown. both Brown, the daughter of his immediate predecessor. This excellent woman, who was likewise a native of Holland, became the mother of five sons and four daughters, and all of them still survive.

As an early period of his life he had begun to distinguish himself by his superior talents, and by his superior proficiency in various branches of knowledge. The curators of the Stolpian Legacy at Leyden, appropriated to the encouragement of theological learning, having in the year 1783 proposed as the subject of their annual prize that most difficult of all questions, the origin of evil, he appeared in the list of twenty-five competitors. The first prize was awarded to Joseph Paap de Fagoras, a learned Hungarian; but the second honour, namely, that of publication at the expense of the trust, was adjudged to the dissertation of Mr Brown. It was accordingly printed among the memoirs of the society, under the title of "*Disputatio de Fabrica Mundi, in quo Mala insunt, Nature Dei perfectissime haud repugnante.*" Other honours awaited him about the same period. He had formerly taken the degree of A. M. at St Andrews, and in 1784 the same university created him D. D. On three different occasions he obtained the medals awarded by the Teylerian Society at Haarlem for the best compositions in Latin, Dutch, French, or English, on certain prescribed subjects. His essay on scepticism obtained the gold medal in 1786, his dissertation on the immortality of the soul the silver medal in 1787, and his essay on the natural equality of men the silver medal in 1792. The dissertation, which was written in Latin, has never been printed, but the two English essays were in due time given to the public. "An Essay on the Folly of Scepticism, the Absurdity of Dogmatizing on Religious Subjects, and the proper Medium to be observed between these two extremes." Lond. 1788, 8vo. "An Essay on the natural Equality of Men, the Rights that result from it, and the Duties which it imposes." Edinb. 1793, 8vo. The latter work, which was the most successful of all his publications, was reprinted at London in the course of the following year. Many of us are old enough to remember the political and intellectual fermentation of that eventful period, when the wildest reveries of one class of men were opposed by the superannuated bigotry of another. Dr Brown's work, although it evinces sufficient liberality, is at the same time sober and discriminating: it was considered as an able and a seasonable discussion of topics which had been so egregiously perverted; it even attracted the attention of the British government, and had no small influence in preparing the way for his subsequent preferment.

Before this period he had been appointed to a professorship in the university of Utrecht. He had for some time been involved in considerable difficulties, in consequence of the civil commotions which arose between the partizans of the house of Nassau and those who delighted in the name of patriots. He was led to regard the authority and influence of the prince as the best security against the tyranny of the aristocracy, and he accordingly became a decided adherent of the Orange party.¹ Although he was not exposed to any direct molestation on account of his political opinions and connexions, yet during the temporary triumph of the opposite party, he found himself placed in a situation both precarious and harassing. In

the expectation of removing himself beyond their power, he began to cast an anxious glance towards the land of his fathers; but after he had repaired to London with the view of obtaining some literary or ecclesiastical appointment in Scotland, the armed interposition of the Prussians occasioned a sudden change in the government of Holland. The friends of Dr Brown had now regained their ascendancy, and were anxious to testify their approbation of his public conduct and personal merits: the states and the magistrates of Utrecht jointly instituted a professorship of moral philosophy and ecclesiastical history, and appointed him to this new office. The lectures were to be delivered in the Latin language; and two courses, to be continued during a session of nearly eight months, were to be commenced after an interval of not many weeks. So great an effort was very prejudicial to his health, and laid the foundation of complaints by which he was frequently harassed during the remainder of his life.

On entering upon the duties of his office, he pronounced an inaugural oration, which was immediately published under the title of "*Oratio de Religionis et Philosophiæ Societate et Concordia maxime salutaria.*" Traj. ad Rhen. 1788, 4to. Two years afterwards he was nominated rector of the university; and on depositing his temporary dignity, he pronounced an "*Oratio de Imagine, in Vite Institutione, regunda.*" Traj. ad Rhen. 1790, 4to. During this interval he had been offered the Greek professorship at St Andrews; but the curators of the university of Utrecht induced him, by a promise of augmenting his salary, to retain a situation in which he had acquitted himself with eminent ability. To his other offices was now added the professorship of the law of nature; a branch of study to which a great degree of attention had long been devoted in the universities of Holland and Germany. It has usually been conjoined with the law of nations, and taught by members of the law faculty; but we have already seen that the previous studies of Dr Brown had been partly juridical, and indeed this department is most intimately connected with ethics. By the professors of moral philosophy in the Scottish universities, particularly by Dr Hutcheson, and his predecessor Mr Carmichael, the law of nature was at one period regularly discussed as an essential part of their course; nor were the general principles of law excluded from the ethical course of a more recent professor of eminence, the late Dr Ferguson.

Dr Brown resided at Utrecht, and discharged his public duties with credit and reputation, till the war which followed the French revolution finally drove him from the place of his nativity. After a long interval of painful anxiety and suspense, he was at length impelled, by the rapid approach of the invading army, to seek a place of refuge. In the course of a very severe winter, he embarked in the month of January 1793, and with his wife and five children, together with some other relations, quitted the coast of Holland in an open boat, and landed in England after a stormy passage. Having proceeded to London, he experienced such a reception as was due to his literary talents and moral worth. During the late Lord Auckland's embassy at the Hague, he had formed more than a common acquaintance with that nobleman, who was himself a person of literature, and a judge of li-

¹ The same political sentiments were adopted by the most eminent scholars of that period. "Ita enim judicabat [Hemsterhuisius], et rei publice opus esse gubernatore, qui totum ejus corpus curaret atque ad consensum dirigeret, et civibus quasi tribuno plebis, qui eos aduersus patriciorum dominationem ac libidinem tueretur. Item et Rubenius et Valckenarius judicabant. Postea, quum olim instituta presædialia libertatis a publico ad privatum commodum traderet, et bello Britannico imperia ac successus pervariando ejus viderentur, utroque partes optimatum probare coeperunt, ut solas vindices gloriæ ac prosperitatis Batavæ adversus hostem injuriam." (Wyttenbachii, *Vita Davidis Rubenii*: Opuscula, tom. I. p. 698. Lugd. Bat. 1821, 2 tom. 8vo.)

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terary merit: his *Principles of Penal Law* are a respectable monument of his intellectual attainments, and he published other works of a more temporary nature. Having conceived a very favourable opinion of the professor, he had some years before recommended him to the notice of Dr Moore, archbishop of Canterbury; and it was to their united influence that he was chiefly indebted for the honourable station in which he terminated his long and useful life. A distant prospect of succeeding to the divinity chair at Aberdeen had presented itself at a much earlier period. Dr Campbell, who was bending beneath the load of years, had expressed a wish to resign his offices. The proposal of a pension, which his public services had well earned, and the nomination of a successor with whose acquirements he was duly acquainted, now led to the completion of such an arrangement as he entirely approved: he first resigned the professorship of divinity, and in the summer of 1795 the magistrates of Aberdeen presented Dr Brown to that chair; the office of principal of Marischal College having been vacated soon afterwards, he received a presentation from the crown, and entered upon his new functions at the commencement of the ensuing session. With his distinguished predecessor he formed a most cordial friendship, which however was suspended by the feeble thread of a very lengthened life. Dr Campbell died in the ensuing month of April, and Dr Brown honoured his memory by a funeral sermon, which was immediately printed. Aberd. 1798, 8vo. This venerable person, long the chief ornament of the university, was a man of great acuteness and perspicacity, united with accurate and extensive learning: his *Philosophy of Rhetoric* is a work of very singular merit, and the value of his theological writings has been universally acknowledged. Dr Beattie, an elegant and accomplished writer of verse as well as prose, was still a member of the same college; and to these conspicuous names we must add that of Dr Hamilton, professor of mathematics, whose *Inquiry into the National Debt* first exposed the fatality and delusion of the sinking fund.

This new professorship imposed upon him a very serious task. He composed, as we are informed, a course of theological lectures, extending over five sessions. After a review of the different systems of religion, those laying claim to a divine origin, he discussed most amply the evidences and doctrines of natural religion. He then proceeded to the evidences of revealed religion, of which he gave a very full and learned view. The Christian scheme formed the next subject of an enquiry, in which the peculiar doctrines of Christianity were very extensively unfolded. Christian ethics were also explained; and it formed part of his original plan to treat of all the great controversies that have agitated the religious world. This portion of the course was not however completed.—It is observable that, in this extensive outline, no department is allotted to biblical literature, which in the Scotch universities has been too much neglected. But in King's College two successive professors of the same family assigned a particular part of their academical course to this very important subject; and the younger of them, Dr Gilbert Gerard, further recommended the study by the publication of his *Institutes of Biblical Criticism*, printed at Edinburgh in the year 1808.

Dr Brown soon became a very conspicuous member of the church of Scotland. He was an impressive preacher, a prompt and forcible speaker, and some of his appearances in the general assembly produced a powerful effect. The manly temperament of his mind rendered him incapable of cowering to mere rank and station; and his first aspect, with the first sound of his voice, conveyed to those who saw and heard him the idea that he was no ordinary person. His speech on the case of Dr Arnott, delivered

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in the first assembly of which he was a member, classed him among the best public speakers of the time. It was printed in a separate form, under the title of "Substance of a Speech delivered in the General Assembly of the Church of Scotland, on Wednesday the 28th of May 1800, on the Question respecting the Settlement, at Kingabarns, of the Rev. Dr Robert Arnott, Professor of Divinity in St Mary's College, St Andrews." Edinb. 1800, 8vo. His public opposition to pluralities in the church has very frequently been represented as inconsistent with his private practice; but this inconsistency was less real than apparent. The office of principal, though honourable, was not very lucrative: for a considerable time it had generally been united with the professorship of divinity; but in one instance it was held by a layman, Dr Blackwell, the learned professor of Greek. And for the same reason, the want of an adequate endowment, the divinity professorship had been conjoined with the charge of a minister of the West Church; but the professor was only bound to preach alternately with his colleague, and was exempted from all the other routine of parochial duties. Most of the other preferments subsequently bestowed upon him were altogether unconnected with professional exertion.

For several years he regularly attended the assembly, and, steadily adhering to the popular party, took a conspicuous share in its public deliberations; but it has been truly remarked that although he could be roused to the most lively interest in general questions, he felt no inclination to learn or to practise the tactics of a leader in the ecclesiastical courts. The discharge of his academical and pastoral duties was better adapted to his taste and disposition. These duties he discharged with much zeal and ability; and his ordinary habits being sedentary and studious, he found sufficient leisure for his favourite pursuits of literature. Together with genuine piety and theological knowledge, he was particularly anxious to discriminate a taste for classical learning. It was his practice to deliver a Latin oration to the professors and students of his college at the commencement of each session; and he bestowed particular attention on the style of the Latin exercises read in the divinity hall.

Of the energy of his pulpit discourses he has left an adequate specimen in his printed volume of *Sermons*. Edinb. 1803, 8vo. But the most serious of his intellectual efforts was the essay which obtained Burnet's first prize, amounting to L.1250. The competitors were about fifty in number; and the judges were Dr Gerard, professor of divinity, Dr Glennie, professor of moral philosophy, and Dr Hamilton, professor of mathematics. The second prize, amounting to L.400, was awarded to Dr Sumner, the present bishop of Chester. Dr Brown's work was published under the title of "An Essay on the Existence of a Supreme Creator," &c. Aberd. 1816, 2 vols. 8vo. The last considerable work which he committed to the press was "A comparative View of Christianity, and of the other Forms of Religion which have existed, and still exist, in the World, particularly with regard to their moral Tendency." Edinb. 1826, 2 vols. 8vo. This is a production of varied learning and of solid merit, but being the result of mature thought, and being written in a sober and manly style, it was less calculated to attract the mobility of readers; for there is a fashion in theology as well as in novels.

In the year 1800 Dr Brown had been appointed chaplain in ordinary to his majesty, and in 1804 dean of the chapel royal, and of the most ancient and most noble order of the Thistle. He was last of all appointed to read the Gordon lecture in Marischal College, and he delivered his inaugural discourse on the 22d of November 1825. It was published under the title of a "Lecture introductory

Brown. to the Course of Practical Religion, instituted by the Will of John Gordon, Esq. of Murtle." Aberd. 1826, 8vo.

All his publications have not yet been enumerated. Before he quitted Utrecht, he had published a poem entitled "An Essay on Sensibility;" and at a more recent period he sent to the press "Philemon, or the Progress of Virtue;" a Poem. Edinburgh, 1809, 2 vols, 8vo. Beside the works which we have mentioned, he printed several detached sermons, and likewise the following tracts. An Examination of the Causes and Conduct of the present War with France, and of the most effectual Means of obtaining a speedy, a secure, and an honourable Peace: together with some Observations on the late Negotiations at Lisle. Lond. 1798, 8vo. This pamphlet was published without the author's name. Letters to the Rev. Dr George Hill, Principal of St Mary College, St Andrews. Aberd. 1801, 8vo. Remarks on certain Passages of "An Examination of Mr Dugald Stewart's Pamphlet, by one of the Ministers of Edinburgh;" relative to subjects nearly connected with the Interests of Religion and Learning. Aberd. 1806, 8vo. A Letter to George Hill, D. D. Principal of St Mary's College, St Andrews; occasioned by the publication of the Substance of his Speech in the General Assembly, May 23, 1807. Edinb. 1807, 8vo. Nobilissimi Viri, Georgii Marchionis de Huntly, Domini de Gordon, Provincie Aberdonensis Praefecti Regii, Academiae Marischallanae Cancellarii, xxi^{to} Decembris die anno Christi m.dccc.xv^{to} inaugurandi Formula atque Modus. Aberdoniae, 1816, 4to. Librorum Societas; Carmen, recitatum in Comitibus Academicis quae prima post Festas aetivas an. m.dccc.xxix. habebantur. Aberd. 1830, 8vo.

Although his health had never been robust, and he reached a very advanced period of life, he retained his mental faculties till the day of his death; and his dissolution was rather occasioned by the gradual decay of his bodily frame, than by any acute suffering. For two years his strength had imperceptibly declined; and although the decline became rapid about a week before his decease, yet he did not relinquish his usual employments. Reduced as he was to extreme weakness, he wrote part of a letter to two of his sons on the very last day of his mortal existence: to his third son, the Greek professor in Marischal College, he dictated a few sentences within six hours of his decease. Having been assisted to move from his bed-chamber to the parlour, he continued till midnight in the society of his family: after joining in their domestic devotions, he was with much diffidence removed to his bed; he then slept quietly for three hours, and having repeatedly spoken in a cool and intelligible manner, he calmly breathed his last at four in the morning. So gently was the spark of life extinguished, that his family did not mark the precise time. He died on the eleventh of May 1830, in the seventy-sixth year of his age. It has been faithfully stated that the regrets of his fellow-citizens, and of a numerous circle of friends in various parts of the kingdom, have paid to his character the most affecting and unequivocal tribute which can be offered to the memory of those who have neither lived unnoticed nor died unhonoured. And we cannot refrain from adding, in the words of Minutius Felix, "Nee immerito discendens vir eximius et sanctus, immensum sui desiderium nobis reliquit."

Dr Brown was of the middle size, and had a very intelligent countenance. He had been much accustomed to elegant society, and his manners were easy and polished, but, in a certain sense, he never could be initiated in the ways of the world: he possessed an unusual singleness of heart, and so habitual a regard for what is upright and manly in the human character, that he not unfrequently displayed his caution less prominently than his honesty. He was not without considerable warmth of temper, but at the

same time he was open, sincere, and generous; nor is this ardour and intensity of feeling so easily separated from quickness of discernment and vigour of perception. Men of a colder temperament, possessing less than one half of his moral excellence, may pass through life with a very decent share of respectability. His talents and learning are not unknown to the public; but his warmth of affection, his rectitude of purpose, and his fervour of piety, are best known to those who had frequent opportunities of seeing him in the circle of his own family, or in the house of an intimate friend. To an unusual share of classical learning Dr Brown added a very familiar acquaintance with several of the modern languages. Latin and French he wrote and spoke with great facility. His successive study of ethics, jurisprudence, and theology, had habituated his mind with the most important topics of speculation, relating to the present condition of man and to his future destiny. His political sentiments were liberal and expansive, not cautiously circumscribed by one party-circle, or coldly limited to one small spot of earth, but connected with ardent aspirations after the general improvement and happiness of the human race. The liberality of his theological opinions was widely removed from indifference. His reading in divinity had been very extensive; he was well acquainted with the works of British and foreign theologians, particularly of those who wrote in the Latin language during the seventeenth century. In his more elaborate publications he evinces no mean portion of erudition, ingenuity, and judgment; but the intellectual vigour and promptitude which he displayed in conversation, were such as to impress many of his friends with a still higher opinion of his capabilities than they derived from any of the numerous works which he communicated to the public. (x.)

BROWN, Thomas, an eminent metaphysician, was born at Kirkcubreck, in the stewartry of Kirkcubright, on the 9th of January 1788, and was the youngest son of the Rev. Samuel Brown, minister of the parish of Kirkcubreck, and of Mary Smith, daughter of John Smith, Esq. of Wigton. His father survived his birth only a short time, and he received the first rudiments of his education from his mother. In the first lesson he learned all the letters of the alphabet, and every succeeding step was equally remarkable. From his seventh till his fourteenth year he was placed, under the protection of a maternal uncle, at different schools in the neighbourhood of London, at all of which he distinguished himself, and made great progress in classical literature. Upon the death of his uncle in 1792, he returned to his mother's house in Edinburgh, and entered as a student in the university.

His attention was first directed to metaphysical subjects by the elegant and benevolent biographer of Burns, Dr Currie of Liverpool, to whom he was introduced in the summer of 1793. About that time the first volume of Mr Stewart's Elements of the Philosophy of the Human Mind was published. Dr Currie put a copy of the work into his hands, and was struck not more with the warmth of admiration which the young philosopher expressed, than with the acuteness he displayed in many of his remarks. The next winter he attended Mr Stewart's class; and at the close of one of the lectures of that celebrated philosopher, he went up, though personally unknown, and modestly submitted some difficulties which had occurred to him respecting one of Mr Stewart's theories. Mr Stewart listened to him patiently, and, with a candour which did him infinite honour, informed him that he had just received a communication from the distinguished M. Prevost of Geneva, containing a similar objection. This proved the commencement of a friendship which Dr Brown continued to enjoy till the time of his death.

Brown. It has already been mentioned in one of the preliminary dissertations to this work (p. 393), that at the age of nineteen he took a part with others, some of whom became the most memorable men of their time, in the foundation of a private society in Edinburgh under the name of the Academy of Physics. This society is interesting in the history of letters, as having given rise to the publication of the Edinburgh Review. Some articles in the early numbers of that work were written by Dr Brown, and bear the marks of his genius.

In 1798 he published "Observations on the Zoonomia of Dr Darwin." When it is considered that the greater part of this work was written in his eighteenth year, it may perhaps be regarded as the most remarkable of his productions; and it may be doubted if, in the history of philosophy, there is to be found any work exhibiting an equal prematurity of talents and attainments. Those who take an interest in tracing the progress of intellect will find in it the germ of all his subsequent views in regard to mind, and of those principles of philosophizing by which he was guided in his future inquiries.

In 1803, after attending the usual course pursued by medical students, he took his degree of doctor of medicine.

In the same year he brought out the first edition of his poems, in two volumes. The greater number of the pieces contained in them were written while he was at college. They are of a very miscellaneous description, and are certainly inferior to many of his subsequent compositions; at the same time they all exhibit marks of an original mind, and of a singularly refined taste.

His next publication was an examination of the principles of Mr Hume respecting causation. Though this tract was occasioned by a local controversy, it is entirely of an abstract nature, and all reference to the circumstances that led to the publication is studiously avoided. Its great merits have been universally acknowledged. It was alluded to in the most flattering manner in the Edinburgh Review, in a very able article by Mr Horner; Mr Stewart also gave a valuable testimony as to its excellence; and Sir James Mackintosh has pronounced it the finest model in mental philosophy since Berkeley and Hume. A second edition, considerably enlarged, was published in 1806; and in 1818 it appeared in a third edition, with so many additions and alterations, as to constitute it almost a new work, under the title of "An Inquiry into the Relation of Cause and Effect."

From the time when Dr Brown had taken his degree, he continued for several years to practise as a physician in Edinburgh. In 1806 he was associated in partnership with the late Dr Gregory; and there was every prospect of his attaining in due time the highest eminence in his profession. But success as a physician was not sufficient to satisfy his ambition. The discharge of his professional duties was marked by that assiduous tenderness of attention which might have been expected from a disposition so truly amiable; but still philosophy was his passion, from which he felt it as a misfortune that his duty should so much estrange him.

The period, however, at last arrived when he was to be elevated to a situation suited to his tastes and habits, and where his public duties corresponded with his inclinations. Mr Stewart, in consequence of the gradual decline of his health, being frequently prevented from attending to the duties of his class, found it necessary to have recourse to the assistance of some of his friends during his temporary absence. He therefore applied to Dr Brown, who undertook the arduous task of supplying his place with lectures of his own composition. He first appeared in the moral philosophy class in the winter of 1808-9. At this time, however, there was no great call for his exertions, as Mr

Brown. Stewart was soon able to resume his professional duties. In the following winter he again presented himself as Mr Stewart's substitute, and by a succession of eloquent lectures during several weeks, he so decidedly established his character, that when Mr Stewart signified a desire to have Dr Brown united with him in the professorship, but little opposition was made, and in 1810 he was appointed professor of moral philosophy in conjunction with Mr Stewart.

Immediately after his appointment he retired to the country, where he remained till within a few weeks of the meeting of the college; judging that, with a constitution not naturally strong, nothing was so important for his approaching labours as a confirmed state of health and spirits. For many years he had devoted his attention to the science of mind, and was intimately acquainted with the subject; and, from the experience of the two preceding winters, he had acquired sufficient confidence in his own powers to be assured that he could prepare his lectures upon the spur of the occasion. Accordingly, when the college opened, except the lectures that were written during Mr Stewart's absence, he had no other preparation in writing. His exertions during the whole of the winter were very great, and completely successful. The expectations that had been excited among his friends were more than realized, and he secured the highest place in the respect and affections of his students.

For some years after his appointment to the moral philosophy chair, Dr Brown had little leisure for engaging in any literary undertaking. Even the long summer vacation be found to be no more than sufficient for restoring his energies for the exertions of the succeeding season. By degrees, however, he became familiarised with the duties of his situation, and was enabled to indulge occasionally in other pursuits. In the summer of 1814 he brought to a conclusion his "Paradise of Coquettes," which he published anonymously, and which met with a favourable reception. In succeeding seasons he published various other poetical works.

Any notice of the life of Dr Brown would be incomplete if it did not contain a reference to his mother, whom he loved with a tenderness and reverence of affection that formed a distinguishing feature of his character. This excellent woman died in 1817. Her character is faithfully delineated in the beautiful lines addressed to her memory, prefixed to one of his poetical productions.

In the autumn of 1819, at a favourite retreat in the neighbourhood of Dunkeld, he commenced his text-book, a work which he long intended to prepare for the benefit of his students. At that time he was in excellent health; but towards the end of December of the same year he became indisposed, and after the recess he was in such a state of weakness as to be unable for some time to resume his official duties. When he again met his class his lecture unfortunately happened to be one which he was never able to deliver without being much moved, and from the manner in which he recited the very affecting lines from Beattie's Hermit, it was conceived by many that the emotion he displayed arose from a foreboding of his own approaching dissolution.

'Tis night, and the landscape is lonely no more,—
I mourn, but, ye woodlands, I mourn not for you,
For morn is approaching your charms to restore,
Perfumed with fresh fragrance, and glittering with dew;
Nor yet for the ravage of winter I mourn,
Kind nature the embryo blossom shall soon
But when shall spring visit the mouldering urn,
O when will it dawn on the night of the grave.

This was the last lecture he ever delivered. From this period his health rapidly declined. Having upon a former occasion derived great benefit from a sea

Browne voyage, he proceeded, by the advice of his medical attendants, to London, accompanied by his two sisters, with the intention of removing, as soon as the season allowed, to a milder climate. But all means of remedy were now too late, and nothing could permanently retard the progress of his disease. Day after day he became weaker.

During the whole period of his illness he was never heard to utter a complaint. Gentle as he ever was, sickness and pain made him still more so. His only anxiety seemed to be the distress which his sufferings occasioned to those around him. A few days after his arrival in London he went to Brompton, where he died on the 24 of April 1800. His remains were put into a leaden coffin, and laid, according to his own request, in the church-yard of his native parish, beside those of his father and mother.

Dr Brown was in height rather above the middle size. The expression of his countenance was that of calm reflection. His likeness is well preserved in a picture by Watson in 1806. Among the more prominent features of Dr Brown's character may be enumerated the most perfect gentleness, and kindness, and delicacy of mind, united with great independence of spirit, a truly British love of liberty, and a most ardent desire for the diffusion of knowledge, and virtue, and happiness among mankind. All his habits were simple, temperate, studious, and domestic; and he was remarkable for nothing more than his love of home, and the happiness he shed around him there.

As a philosopher he was possessed in an eminent degree of that comprehensive energy which, according to his own description, "sees, through a long train of thought, a distant conclusion, and separating at every stage the essential from the accessory circumstances, and gathering and combining analogies as it proceeds, arrives at length at a system of harmonious truth." The predominating quality of his intellectual character was unquestionably the power of analysis, in which he has had few equals. In all his prose Dr Brown has shown great powers of eloquence. His poetry has never been popular, though it contains many passages of exquisite beauty. As a writer, simplicity is the quality in which he is most deficient, and subtlety that in which he most excels.

His character as a philosopher will chiefly rest upon his lectures, which were published after his death. It would be foreign to the object of the present sketch to give an account of the principles of his philosophy, or to enter upon a discussion of any of the questions that have been agitated upon the subject. We shall merely observe that the estimation in which his lectures are held by the public appears from the number of editions which, under all the disadvantages of a posthumous publication, have been called for; and his virtues as a man are almost universally allowed to have been in beautiful accordance with his talents as a philosopher.

An account of the life and writings of Dr Brown was published in 1825, in 8vo, by the Rev. Dr Welch. (w. w.)

BROWNE, SIR THOMAS, an eminent physician and celebrated writer, was born at London on the 19th of October 1605. Having studied at Winchester College, and afterwards at Oxford, he travelled through France and Italy; and returning by the way of Holland, he took his degree of doctor of physic at Leyden. In 1636 he settled at Norwich, and the year following was incorporated as doctor of physic at Oxford. His *Religio Medici* made a great noise; and being translated into Latin, instantly spread throughout Europe, and gained him a prodigious reputation. It was then translated into almost every language in Europe. This book has been heavily censured by some as tending to infidelity, and even atheism; whilst others, with much more reason, have applauded the piety, as well as the parts and learning, of the author. His Treatise on

Vulgar Errors was read with equal avidity; he also published *Hydriotaphia*, or a Discourse of Sepulchral Urns lately found in Norfolk. His reputation in his profession was equal to his fame for learning in other respects; and therefore the college of physicians were pleased to take him into their number as an honorary member; and King Charles II. coming to Norwich in his progress in 1671, was pleased to knight him, with singular marks of favour and respect. He died on his birthday in 1681, leaving several manuscripts behind him, which were published under the title of *The Posthumous Works of the learned Sir Thomas Browne, Knt. M.D.*

BROWNE, EZEKIEL, the son of the former, physician to King Charles II. and president of the Royal College of London. He was born in the year 1642; and studied at Cambridge, and afterwards at Merton College, Oxford. He then travelled; and on his return published a brief account of some travels in Hungary, Servia, Bulgaria, Macedonia, Thessaly, Austria, Styria, Carinthia, Carniola, Friuli, and other parts. He also published an account of several travels through great part of Germany, and joined his name to those of many other eminent men in a translation of Plutarch's Lives. He was acquainted with Hebrew, was a critic in Greek, and no man of his age wrote better Latin. High Dutch, Italian, French, and other modern languages, he spoke and wrote with as much ease as his mother tongue. King Charles said of him, that he was as learned as any of the college, and as well bred as any at court. He died on the 27th August 1708.

BROWNE, WILLIAM GEORGE. This eminent traveller was born on Great-Tower-Hill, London, on the 25th July 1768. His father was a respectable wine merchant, descended from a good family in Cumberland. His constitution being originally so weak as to require constant attention, he was educated privately under Dr Whalley, editor of Ben Jonson's works, a man of considerable parts and learning, who inspired him with a taste for study. At seventeen he was sent to Oriel College, Oxford; and, though he complained of the want of encouragement and assistance, he there went through an extensive course of classical reading, studying often from twelve to fifteen hours a day. On leaving the university he hesitated for some time between the three learned professions, but at length determined to remain contented with the moderate competence left to him by his father, and applied himself entirely to the pursuit of knowledge. He embarked deeply in political questions, embracing with ardour the popular cause. He republished some political tracts, among which was part of Buchanan, *De Jure Regni apud Scotos*, and formed the plan of reprinting a regular series of such writings. But the fame of Mr Bruce's travels, and of the first discoveries made by the African Association, inflamed his ardent mind, and he determined to devote himself to the cause of discovery on that continent.

Mr Browne left England at the close of 1791, and arrived at Alexandria in January 1792. He spent a few months in visiting Siwah, the supposed site of the temple of Jupiter Ammon; and employed the remainder of the year in examining the whole of Egypt. In the spring of 1793 he visited Suaz and Sinal, and in May set out for Darfur. This was his most important journey, in which he acquired a great variety of original information. He endured much hardship, and was unable to effect his purpose of returning by Abyssinia. He did not reach Egypt till 1796, after which he spent a year in Syria, and did not arrive in London till September 1798. In 1800 he published his travels in Africa, Egypt, and Syria, from the year 1792 to 1798, in one volume 4to. The work was highly esteemed, and is classed by Major Rennell among the first performances of the kind; but, from the

Brownists, abruptness and dryness of the style, he never became very popular.

In 1800 Mr Brown again left England, and spent three years in visiting Greece, some parts of Asia Minor, and Sicily. He had made some progress in preparing for the press an account of this journey, but gave up his intention, for some reason unknown.

Mr Browne now spent some years in retirement, employed in oriental studies, and showing indifference to British objects and scenery, though he enjoyed greatly an excursion into Ireland.

Tired of this inactivity, in 1812 he set out on a more extensive journey than formerly, proposing to penetrate to Samarcand, and survey the most interesting regions of Central Asia. He spent the winter in Smyrna, and in the spring of 1813 proceeded through Asia Minor and Armenia, made a short stay at Erzerum, and arrived on the first of June at Tabriz, where he met with Sir Gore Ouseley. About the end of the summer of 1813 he left Tabriz for Teheran, intending to proceed thence into Tartary; but unhappily he never reached that destination. Near the banks of the Kizil-Ozan his party were attacked by banditti, and, according to the report of the survivors, Mr Browne was dragged to a short distance from the road, where he was plundered and murdered. Suspicion attached to his companions, and even to the Persian government, but nothing occurred to confirm these surmises. Some bones, believed to be his, were afterwards found and interred near the grave of Thevenot, the celebrated French traveller.

Mr Browne, in his person, was thin, rather above the middle size, with a grave and pensive cast of countenance. He entertained an extraordinary predilection for the manners and character of the orientals. Like them, he was in general society silent, reserved, and even repulsive. Even among his most intimate friends he would remain long gloomy and reserved; but after indulging in a pipe his eye brightened, and he related with great animation the interesting scenes through which he had passed. His disposition was friendly, liberal, and generous, and he was distinguished by a strict regard to veracity. Under a cold exterior he cherished an ardent desire to distinguish himself by some memorable achievement, in pursuit of which he was ready to brave danger and death.

His volume of travels in Africa has already been mentioned. Mr Walpole, in the second volume of his *Memoirs* relating to European and Asiatic Turkey (4to, 1820), has published, from papers left by him, the account of his journey in 1802 through Asia Minor to Antioch and Cyprus; also Remarks written at Constantinople. No account is preserved of his last journey, except what is contained in a letter to Mr Smithson Tennant.

BROWNISTS, a religious sect, which sprung out of that of the Puritans towards the close of the sixteenth century. Their leader, Robert Brown, who wrote divers books in their behalf, was a man of good parts and some learning. He was born of a good family in Rutlandshire, and related to the lord-treasurer Burgley. He had been educated at Cambridge, but first published his notions, and began to inveigh openly against the discipline and ceremonies of the church, at Norwich in the year 1580; from which time he underwent divers prosecutions from the bishops, inasmuch that he boasted he had been committed to no less than thirty-two prisons, in some of which he could not see his hand at noon-day. At length, with his congregation, he left the kingdom, and settled at Middleburg in Zealand, where they obtained leave of the states to worship God in their own way, and form a church according to their own model; which they had not long done before this handful of men, just delivered from the severities of

the bishops, began to differ among themselves, and crumble into so many parties, that Brown their pastor grew weary of his office; and, returning to England in 1589, he renounced his principles of separation, was preferred to the rectory of a church in Northamptonshire, and died, after leading a very idle and dissolute life, in 1630.

The revolt of Brown was attended with the dissolution of the church at Middleburg; but the seeds of Brownism which he had sown in England were so far from being destroyed, that Sir Walter Raleigh, in a speech in 1592, computes that no less than twenty thousand persons followed it. The occasion of their separation was not any fault they found with the faith, but only with the discipline and form of government of the other churches in England. They charged corruption equally on the Episcopal form and on that of the Presbyterians, by consistories, classes, and synods; nor would they join with any other reformed church, because they were not assured of the sanctity and regeneration of the members who composed it, on account of the toleration of sinners, with whom they maintained it an impiety to communicate. They condemned the solemn celebration of marriages in the church; maintaining that matrimony being a political contract, the confirmation of it ought to come from the civil magistrate. They would not allow to be baptized any children of such as were not members of the church, or of such as did not take sufficient care of those baptized before. They rejected all forms of prayer, and held that the Lord's prayer was not to be recited as a prayer, being only given for a rule or model whereon all our prayers are to be formed. The form of church government which they established was democratical. When a church was to be gathered, such as desired to be members of it made a confession and signed a covenant, by which they obliged themselves to walk together in the order of the gospel. The whole power of admitting and excluding members, with the decision of all controversies, was lodged in the brotherhood. The church officers were chosen from among themselves, for preaching the word and taking care of the poor, and separated to their several offices by fasting, prayer, and imposition of hands of some of the brethren. But they did not allow the priesthood to be any distinct order, or to give any indelible character. As the vote of the brotherhood made a man a minister, and gave him authority to preach the word and administer the sacraments among them, so the same power could discharge him from his office, and reduce him to the condition of a mere layman again. And is they maintained that the bounds of a church were defined by the number of those who could meet together in one place, and join in one communion, so the power of these officers was confined within the same limits. The minister or pastor of one church could not administer the Lord's supper to another, nor baptize the children of any but those of his own society. Any lay brother was allowed the liberty of prophesying, or of giving a word of exhortation to the people; and it was usual for some of them, after sermon, to ask questions, and reason upon the doctrines which had been preached. In a word, every church on the Brownists' model is a body corporate, having full power to do every thing which the good of the society requires, without being accountable to any presbytery, synod, assembly, convocation, or other jurisdiction whatever. Most of their discipline has been adopted by the Independents, a party which afterwards arose from among the Brownists. The laws were executed with great severity against the Brownists; their books were prohibited by Queen Elizabeth, their persons were imprisoned, and many of them were hanged. The ecclesiastical commission and the star-chamber, in fine, distressed them to such a degree that they resolved to quit their country. Accordingly, many families retired

Brownists

Brownrigg and settled at Amsterdam, where they formed a church, and chose Mr Johnson for their pastor, and after him Mr Ainsworth, author of the learned commentary on the Pentateuch. Their church flourished near a hundred years.

BROWNIGG, DR WILLIAM, was a native of Cumberland, and born about the year 1712. Of the early part of the life of this philosopher we have had no opportunity of obtaining information. Being destined for the medical profession, after the previous studies in his own country he repaired to Leyden to finish his education. This university was then in its highest splendour; Albinus taught anatomy, Euler mathematics, and the chair of medicine and chemistry was occupied by the accomplished Boerhaave. Having made a long and happy residence at Leyden, and taken his degree, he returned to his native country, and, in Whitehaven, married a lady of singular good sense, and possessed of an address so versatile and superior as never failed to charm in whatever circle it was exerted. He was the author of an inaugural dissertation *De Praxi medica inuenta*, 4to, Lugd. Bat. 1737; and of a treatise on the Art of making Common Salt, printed at London in 1748, in 8vo, which procured for him the addition of F. R. S.; a book now long out of print, but not out of recollection. He also published *An Enquiry concerning the Mineral Elastic Spirit* contained in the Water of Spa in Germany; and lastly, a treatise, published in 1771, *On the Means of Preventing the Communication of Pestilential Contagion*. A trip to the Spas of Germany suggested to him the idea of analyzing the properties of the Pyrmont springs, and of some others, and actually led him into that train of disquisition which terminated in the decomposition of one of our elements, and fixing its invisible fluid form in a palpable and visible substance. That Dr Brownrigg was the legitimate father of these discoveries was not only known at the time to his intimate and domestic circle, but also to the then president of the Royal Society, Sir John Pringle, who, when called upon to bestow upon Dr Priestley the gold medal for his paper of Discoveries of the Nature and Properties of Air, observed, that it was no disparagement to the learned Dr Priestley, that the vein of these discoveries was hit upon, and its course successfully followed up, some years ago, by his very learned, very penetrating, very industrious, but modest friend, Dr Brownrigg. To his seat at Ormesthwaite, near Kewick, he had retired about twenty years before his death, withdrawing himself as much from the practice of physic as his numerous connections, his high character, and his friendly disposition, would permit, and purposing to divide his time and his taste between the romantic scenery of this delicious spot, and his researches in natural philosophy. In this retirement he died at the venerable age of eighty-eight, lamented by the poor, to whom he was uniformly a beneficent friend, and regretted by all.

BROWNIE, the name of a servicable kind of sprite, who, according to a superstitious notion formerly prevalent in the Hebrides and Highlands of Scotland (as well as among the country people in England, where he had the name of *Robin Goodfellow*), was wont to clean the houses, help to churn, thresh the corn, and belabour all who pretended to make a jest of him. He was represented as stout and blooming, had fine long flowing hair, and went about with a wand in his hand. He was the very counterpart of Milton's *Lubber Fiend*.

BRUCE, ROBERT, son of the Earl of Carrick, and competitor with Baliol for the crown of Scotland, which he lost by the arbitration of Edward I. of England, for generously refusing to hold of him the crown of Scotland, which his ancestors had left him independent. But Baliol having afterwards broken his agreement with Edward, Bruce was

easily persuaded by that king to unite with him against Baliol, upon a promise that he would settle him on the throne. Having contributed much to the breaking up of Baliol's party, he demanded the accomplishment of King Edward's promise; but the latter is said to have given him this answer: "What! have I nothing else to do but to conquer kingdoms for you?" However, he recovered his crown, defeated the English in several battles, raised the glory of the Scots to an unexampled height of splendour, and extended their dominions. See SCOTLAND.

BRUCE, James, F. R. S. a celebrated traveller, was born at Kinnaird House in the county of Stirling, Scotland, on the 14th of December 1730. The Bruces of Kinnaird are a very ancient family, being descended from a younger son of Robert de Bruce; and they have been in possession of that estate for upwards of three centuries.

Mr Bruce was instructed in grammatical learning at the school of Harrow on the Hill, in Middlesex, where he acquired a considerable share of classical knowledge. Returning to Scotland, he applied to the study of the laws of his country; but soon contracting a dislike to this pursuit, he determined to push his fortune in the East Indies, and for that purpose went to London. While in the metropolis soliciting permission from the directors of the East India Company to go out and settle under their auspices as a free trader, he was introduced to a Miss Allan. This lady was the daughter of Mrs Allan, the widow of an opulent wine merchant. Her beauty and amiable temper soon gained the affections of Bruce; and on the proposal of a marriage, he was induced to forego his East India speculations, and take a share in the wine trade, which he did on marrying Miss Allan. She soon, however, fell into a bad state of health, and Bruce, in hopes that the genial climate of the south of France would benefit her, proceeded thither. But she died on the journey, within a year after her marriage.

Bruce returned to his business in London, but the bond which had connected him with it was now broken; and giving up the principal management of the concern in his partner, he applied himself to studies calculated to dispel the grief which had settled on his mind. For two years he laboured at the Spanish and Portuguese languages, which he learned to pronounce with great accuracy. He also assiduously practised several styles of drawing. His business having afforded him an opportunity of visiting the Continent, he proceeded thither, and travelled first through Portugal, and afterwards through Spain. In the latter country, the traces of oriental manners still visible, the desolate palaces of the caliphs, and the tales of chivalry, interwoven with the Moorish wars, awakened in his mind that spirit of romantic enterprise which afterwards led him to the fountains of the Nile. At Madrid he proposed to explore the collections of Arabic manuscripts which were buried in the monastery of St Lawrence, and in the library of the Escorial. But the jealousy of the Spaniards disappointing him in this, he proceeded to France, and afterwards to Holland, where the news of his father's death reaching him, he returned to England.

By the demise of his father he succeeded to an inheritance which, though respectable, was inadequate to the wants of his growing ambition. From the period of his return in 1758, to the year 1761, he intently employed himself in the acquisition of the eastern languages. A circumstance had occurred which introduced him to Mr Pitt. While at Ferrol in Galicia, there was a rumour of a war between Great Britain and Spain. It immediately occurred to the fertile mind of Bruce that a descent upon Spain at this point could scarcely fail of being successful. He boldly resolved to submit his project to Mr Pitt, through his friend Mr Wood, under secretary of state, to

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Bruce, whom he fully explained the circumstances on which he had formed his opinion. Mr Pitt sent for him, and after a conversation upon the subject, Bruce, at the minister's suggestion, drew up a memorandum of his project. He was then informed by Mr Wood, that Mr Pitt intended to employ him upon a particular service; that he might, however, go down and settle his affairs in his own country, but by all means to be ready upon a call. No time was lost on his part; but just after he received orders to return to London, Mr Pitt resigned.

Notwithstanding this disappointment, which he very sensibly felt, his hopes promised to be yet realized. The memorandum which he drew up for Mr Pitt had been laid before the king, and strongly recommended by Lord Halifax. The Earl of Egremont and Mr Greville had several meetings with Mr Bruce upon the subject, but the death of Egremont put an end to his expectations for the present. Lord Halifax, however, had appreciated Bruce's character. He proposed to him a journey to the coast of Barbary, which had as yet been but partially explored by Dr Shaw. The discovery of the source of the Nile also formed a subject of conversation; and it is unnecessary to state that the enterprising mind of Bruce eagerly caught up the idea.

"Fortune," says he, "seemed to enter into this scheme. At the very instant Mr Aspinwall, very cruelly and ignominiously treated by the dey of Algiers, had resigned his consulship, and Mr Ford, a merchant, formerly the dey's acquaintance, was named in his place. Mr Ford was appointed, and dying a few days after, the consulship became vacant. Lord Halifax pressed me to accept of this, as containing all sorts of conveniences for making the proposed expedition."

This favourable event determined him. After providing a large apparatus of instruments, he set out for Italy through France. On his arrival at Rome he was ordered to proceed to Naples, there to await his majesty's commands. From Naples he again returned to Rome, and from thence proceeded to Leghorn, where he at last embarked for Algiers, and arrived there on the 15th of March 1762.

"After a year spent at Algiers, constant conversation with the natives while abroad, and with my manuscripts within doors, had qualified me to appear in any part of the continent without the help of an interpreter. Ludolf had assured his readers that the knowledge of any oriental language would soon enable them to acquire the Ethiopic; and I needed only the same number of books to have made my knowledge of that language go hand in hand with my attainments in the Arabic. My immediate project of setting out on my journey to the inland parts of Africa had made me double my diligence; night and day there was no relaxation from these studies, although the acquiring any single language had never been with me either an object of time or difficulty."

At Algiers Mr Bruce was detained longer than he expected, in consequence of a dispute with the dey concerning Mediterranean passes. This being adjusted, he proceeded to Mahon, and from Mahon to Carthage. He next visited Tunis and Tripoli, and travelled over the interior parts of these states. At Bengazi, a small town on the Mediterranean, he suffered shipwreck, and with extreme difficulty saved his life, though with the loss of all his baggage. He afterwards sailed to the isles of Rhodes and Cyprus, and proceeding to Asia Minor, travelled through a considerable part of Syria and Palestine, visiting Hassia, Latakia, Aleppo, and Tripoli, near which last city he was again in imminent danger of perishing in a river. The ruins of Palmyra and Babelbec were next carefully surveyed and sketched by him; and his drawings of

these places are deposited in the king's library at Kew: Bruce. "the most magnificent present in that line," to use his own words, "ever made by a subject to his sovereign." Mr Bruce published no particular account of these various journeys; but Dr Murray, in the second edition, introduced from Bruce's MSS. some account of his travels in Tunis.

In these various travels some years were passed; and Mr Bruce now prepared for the grand expedition, the accomplishment of which had ever been nearest his heart,—the discovery of the supposed sources of the Nile. In the prosecution of that dangerous object he left Sidon on the 15th of June 1768, and arrived at Alexandria on the 20th of that month. He proceeded from thence to Cairo, where he remained till the 12th of December following, when he embarked on the Nile, and sailed up the river as far as Syene, visiting in the course of the voyage the ruins of Thebes. Leaving Kené on the Nile on the 16th February 1769, he crossed the desert of the Thebaid to Cosseir on the Red Sea, and arrived at Jidda on the 3d of May. In Arabia Felix he remained, not without making several excursions, till the 3d of September, when he sailed from Lohbeia, and arrived on the 19th at Masauh, where he was detained near of two months by the treachery and avarice of the naybe of that place. It was not till the 15th of November that he was allowed to quit Arkeko, near Masauh; and he arrived on the 15th of February 1770 at Gondar, the capital of Abyssinia, where he ingratiated himself with the most considerable persons of both sexes belonging to the court. Several months were employed in attendance on the king, and in an unsuccessful expedition round the lake of Dembea. Towards the end of October Mr Bruce set out for the sources of the Bahr el Azrek, which he supposed to be the principal branch of the Nile, though it is now generally agreed that this rank ought to be assigned to the Bahr el Abiad. At this long-desired spot he arrived on the 14th of November; and his feelings on the accomplishment of his wishes cannot be better expressed than in his own words:

"It is easier to guess than to describe the situation of my mind at that moment, standing in that spot which had baffled the genius, industry, and inquiry of ancients and moderns for the course of near three thousand years. Kings had attempted this discovery at the head of armies; and each expedition was distinguished from the last only by the difference of the numbers which had perished, and agreed alone in the disappointment which had uniformly and without exception followed them all. Fame, riches, and honour, had been held out for a series of ages to every individual of those myriads whom princes commanded, without having produced one man capable of gratifying the curiosity of his sovereign, or wiping off this stain upon the enterprise and abilities of mankind, or adding this desideratum for the encouragement of geography. Though a mere private Briton, I triumphed here in my own mind over kings and their armies; and every comparison was leading nearer and nearer to the presumption, when the place itself where I stood, the object of my vain-glory, suggested what depressed my short-lived triumphs. I was but a few minutes arrived at the source of the Nile, through numberless dangers and sufferings, the least of which would have overwhelmed me, but for the continual goodness and protection of Providence; I was, however, but then half through my journey, and all those dangers which I had already passed awaited me again on my return. I found a dependancy gaining ground fast upon me, and blasting the crown of laurels I had too rashly woven for myself."

When he returned to rest on the night of that discovery, repose was sought for in vain. "Melancholy reflections

Bruce upon my present state, the doubtfulness of my return in safety, were I permitted to make the attempt, and the fears that even this would be refused, according to the rule observed in Abyssinia with all travellers who have once entered the kingdom; the consciousness of the pain that I was then occasioning to many worthy individuals, expecting daily that information concerning my situation which it was not in my power to give them; and some other thoughts, perhaps, still nearer the heart than those, crowded upon my mind, and forbade all approach of sleep.

"I was, at that very moment, in possession of what had for many years been the principal object of my ambition and wishes; indifference, which, from the usual infirmity of human nature, follows, at least for a time, complete enjoyment, had taken place of it. The marsh and the fountains, upon comparison with the rise of many of our rivers, became now a trifling object in my sight. I remembered that magnificent scene in my own native country, where the Tweed, Clyde, and Annan rise in one hill; three rivers, I now thought, not inferior to the Nile in beauty, preferable to it in the cultivation of those countries through which they flow; superior, vastly superior, to it in the virtues and qualities of the inhabitants, and in the beauty of the flocks, crowding its pastures in peace, without fear of violence from man or beast. I had seen the rise of the Rhine and Rhone, and the more magnificent sources of the Saone; I began, in my sorrow, to treat the inquiry about the source of the Nile as a violent effort of a distempered fancy. Grief and despondency now rolling upon me like a torrent, relaxed, not refreshed, by unquiet and imperfect sleep, I started from my bed in the utmost agony. I went to the door of my tent. Every thing was still; the Nile, at whose head I stood, was not capable either to promote or to interrupt my slumbers; but the coolness and serenity of the night braced my nerves, and chased away those phantasms that while in bed had oppressed and tormented me.

"It was true, that numerous dangers, hardships, and sorrows, had beset me through this half of my excursion; but it was still as true, that another guide, more powerful than my own courage, health, or understanding, if any of them can be called man's own, had uniformly protected me in all that tedious half. I found my confidence not abated, that still the same guide was able to conduct me to my wished-for home. I immediately resumed my former fortitude, considered the Nile as indeed no more than rising from springs as all other rivers do, but widely differing in this, that it was the palm for three thousand years held out to all the nations of the world as a *detur dignissimo*, which, in my cool hours, I had thought was worth the attempting at the risk of my life, which I had long either resolved to lose, or lay this discovery as a trophy, in which I could have no competitor, for the honour of my country, at the feet of my sovereign, whose servant I was."

The object of Mr Bruce's wishes being now gratified, he bent his thoughts on his return to his native country. He arrived at Gondar on the 19th November 1770, but found, after repeated solicitations, that it was by no means an easy task to obtain permission to quit Abyssinia. A civil war in the mean time breaking out, several engagements took place between the king's forces and the troops of the rebels, particularly three actions at a place called Serbraxos, on the 19th, 20th, and 23d of May 1771. In each of these Mr Bruce acted a considerable part, and for his valiant conduct in the second, received, as a reward from the king, a chain of gold. At Gondar, after these engagements, he again preferred the most earnest entreaties to be allowed to return home, entreaties which were long resisted; but his health at last giving away, from the anxiety of his mind, the king consented to his departure,

on condition of his engaging by oath to return to him in the event of his recovery, with as many of his kindred as he could engage to accompany him.

After a residence of nearly two years in that wretched country, Mr Bruce left Gondar on the 16th of December 1771, taking the dangerous way of the desert of Nubia, instead of the more easy road of Masuah, by which he entered Abyssinia. He was induced to take this route, from his former experience of the cruel and savage temper of the naybe of Masuah. Arriving at Teawa on the 21st March 1772, Mr Bruce had the misfortune to find the sheikh Fidle at Athara, the counterpart of the naybe of Masuah in every bad quality. By his interdict and prudence, however, he obtained permission to depart next day, and he arrived at Sennaar on the 29th of the same month.

Mr Bruce was detained upwards of four months at that miserable and inhospitable place, the inhabitants of which he thus describes: "War and treason seem to be the only employment of these horrid people, whom Heaven has separated by almost impassable deserts from the rest of mankind, confining them to an accursed spot, seemingly to give them an earnest in time of the only other state worse which he has reserved to them for an eternal hereafter." This delay was occasioned by the villany of those who had undertaken to supply him with money; but at last, by disposing of nearly the whole of his gold chain, the well-earned trophy of Serbraxos, he was enabled to make preparations for his dangerous journey through the deserts of Nubia.

He left Sennaar on the 5th of September, and arrived on the 3d of October at Chendi, which he quitted on the 20th, and travelled through the desert of Goaz, reaching the village of that name on the 26th of October. On the 9th of November he left Goaz, and entered upon the most dreadful and dangerous part of his journey. All his camels having perished, Mr Bruce was under the necessity of abandoning his baggage in the desert, and with the greatest difficulty reached Assouan upon the Nile on the 29th of November. After some days' rest, having procured fresh camels, he returned into the desert, and recovered his baggage, among which was a quadrant of three feet radius, supplied by Louis XV. from the military academy at Marseilles.

On the 10th of January 1773, after more than four years' absence, he arrived at Cairo, where, by his manly and generous behaviour, he so won the heart of Mahomet Bey, that he obtained a firman, permitting the commanders of English vessels belonging to Bombay and Bengal to bring their ships and merchandise to Suez, a place far preferable in all respects to Jidda, to which they were formerly confined. Of this permission, which no European nation could ever before acquire, many English vessels have since availed themselves; and it has proved peculiarly useful both in public and private dispatches. Such was the conclusion of his laborious and memorable journey through the desert.

At Cairo Mr Bruce's earthly career had nearly been concluded by a disorder in his leg, occasioned by a worm in the flesh. This accident kept him five weeks in extreme agony, and his health was not re-established till a twelvemonth afterwards, at the baths of Porretta in Italy. On his return to Europe Mr Bruce was received with all the admiration due to his enterprising character. After passing a considerable time in France, particularly at Montbard, with his friend the Comte de Buffon, by whom he was received with much hospitality, and is mentioned with great applause, he at last revisited his native country, from which he had been upwards of twelve years absent.

It was now expected that he would take the earliest

Bruce. opportunity of giving to the world a narrative of his travels, in which the public curiosity could not but be deeply interested. But several circumstances contributed to delay the publication. "My friends at home," says he, "gave me up for dead; and as my death must have happened in circumstances difficult to have been proved, my property became as it were a *hereditas jacens*, without an owner, abandoned in common to those whose original title extended no further than temporary possession. A number of law-suits were the inevitable consequence of this upon my return. To these disagreeable avocations, which took up much time, were added others still more unfortunate. The relentless ague, caught at Bengari, maintained its ground, at times, for a space of more than sixteen years, though every remedy had been used, but in vain; and what was worst of all, a lingering distemper had seriously threatened the life of a most near relation (his second wife), which, after nine years constant alarm, where every duty bound me to attention and attendance, conducted her at last, in very early life, to her grave." Amidst the anxiety and the distress thus occasioned, Mr Bruce was by no means neglectful of his private affairs. He considerably improved his landed property, inclosing and cultivating the waste grounds; and he highly embellished his paternal seat.

The termination of some law-suits, and of other business, which had occupied much of his time, having at length afforded leisure to Mr Bruce to put his materials in order, his long-expected work made its appearance in 1790, seventeen years after his return to Europe. It consisted of five large quarto volumes, embellished with plates and charts; was dedicated to the king, and introduced by a striking and manly preface. It is unnecessary to enter into any criticism or analysis of this celebrated work. It is universally allowed to be replete with curious and useful information, and to abound in narratives which at once excite our admiration and interest our feelings. The very singular and extraordinary picture which it gives of Abyssinian manners startled the belief of some. One fact in particular which he stated shipwrecked his reputation, and the world of literature from Johnson down to the author of Munchausen ridiculed the statement as unworthy of credit. It was, that the Abyssinians were in the practice of eating raw meat cut out of a living cow. This, though believed in France and other continental countries, was treated as a fable in England. The shafts of ridicule, envy, and malice, were levelled at his devoted head. The great moralist himself went so far as to doubt his ever having been in the country at all. This was too much for a spirit like that of Bruce, proud, and conscious of its own integrity. He had braved the simoom in the burning sands of Nubia; he had perseverance and strength of mind enough to achieve a triumph which had baffled the efforts of mankind for three thousand years; but all that he received at the hands of his contemporaries was obloquy and contempt. Posterity, however, has done him justice. Every succeeding traveller who has visited the country bears testimony to his veracity, and shows that he has in an eminent degree kept faith with his honour and his fame. The most startling statements, in particular, which he made, have since been fully verified. (See *ABYSSINIA*, vol. ii. p. 61 of this work.) There are indeed a few errors in dates and other circumstances, but they are of no great moment, and in no degree deduct from the general authenticity of his travels.

The language of the work is in general harsh and unpolished, though sometimes animated. Too great a display of vanity runs through the whole; and the apparent facility with which the traveller gained the most familiar access to the courts, and even to the harems, of the sove-

reigns of the countries through which he passed, is apt to create in readers some doubts of the accuracy of the narration. Yet there appears upon the whole such an air of manly veracity, and circumstances are mentioned with a minuteness so unlike deceit, that these doubts are overcome by the general impression of truth which the whole detail irresistibly fastens upon the mind. The first impression being almost wholly disposed of within a short time, Bruce had stipulated for a second edition, which was preparing for the press when death removed the author from this transitory stage.

This event happened on the 26th of April 1794. In the evening of that day, when some company were departing, Bruce attended them down stairs; but on the steps his foot slipped, and he fell down headlong. He was taken up speechless, and remained in a state of insensibility for eight or nine hours, when he expired on the 27th of April 1794, in the sixty-fifth year of his age. He married, for his second wife, at Carronhall, on the 20th May 1776, Mary, eldest daughter of Thomas Dundas of Fingask. Mrs Bruce died in 1784, after a long and lingering indisposition, during which she was attended with the most affectionate assiduity by her husband. By this marriage Mr Bruce had two sons and one daughter.

The second edition of these travels was published in 1805, in seven vols. 8vo, with a quarto volume of plates, edited by Dr Alexander Murray, who obtained access to all his papers, and illustrated the work with a learning and research which established his fame as an oriental scholar. A third edition was published in 1813, which, we believe, is now out of print.

There never, perhaps, existed a man better qualified for the hazardous enterprise he undertook, than Bruce. His person was of the largest size, his height exceeding six feet, and the bulk as well as the strength of his body being proportionally great. He excelled in all personal accomplishments, being a hardy, practised, and indefatigable swimmer, trained to exercise and fatigue of every kind, while his long residence among the Arabs had given him a more than ordinary facility in managing the horse. In the use of fire-arms he was so unerring, that in innumerable instances he never failed to hit the mark; and his dexterity in handling the spear and lance on horseback was also uncommonly great. He was master of most languages, understanding the Greek perfectly; and he was so well skilled in oriental literature, that he revised the New Testament in the Ethiopic, Samaritan, Hebrew, and Syriac, making many useful notes and remarks on difficult passages. He had applied from early youth to mathematics, drawing, and astronomy, and had acquired some knowledge of physic and surgery. His memory was astonishingly retentive, and his judgment sound and vigorous. He was dexterous in negotiation, a master of public business, animated with the warmest zeal for the glory of his king and country, a physician in the camp or city, a soldier and horseman in the field; whilst, at the same time, his breast was a stranger to fear, though he took every precaution to avoid danger. Such, at least, is his own representation of his character; and though an impartial judge would probably make considerable abatement for the natural bias of a man drawing his own portrait, yet it cannot be denied, that in personal accomplishments Bruce equalled, if he did not excel, most of his contemporaries; that he was distinguished for vigour of understanding, as well as great literary attainments; and that in active and persevering intrepidity he may be classed with the most eminent characters in any age or country. Thus accomplished, Bruce could not but be eminently fitted for an attempt so full of difficulty and danger as that of penetrating into the heart of Abyssinia; and no one who peruses his account

Bruchsal of the expedition can fail to pay an unfeigned tribute of admiration to his intrepidity, manliness, and uncommon dexterity in extricating himself out of situations the most dangerous and alarming, in the course of his long and hazardous journey. Not to mention his conduct during his residence in Abyssinia, his behaviour at Masuah, Teawa, and Sennaar, evinces the uncommon vigour of his mind; but it was chiefly during his passage through the Nubian desert that his fortitude, courage, and prudence, appeared to the greatest advantage. Of his learning and sagacity, his delineation of the course of Solomon's fleet from Tarshish to Ophir, his account of the cause of the inundations of the Nile, and his comprehensive view of the Abyssinian history, afford ample proofs. He expresses throughout all his works a deep and lively sense of the care of a superintending Providence, without whose influence he was convinced of the futility of all human ability and foresight to preserve from danger. He appears to have been a serious believer of the truth of Christianity; and his illustrations of some parts of the sacred writings are original and valuable.

BRUCHSAL, a bailiwick in the grand duchy of Baden, on the Bergstrasse, near the Rhine, containing, besides the city from which it takes its name, one city, nine villages, and 15,400 inhabitants. The city is on the Salzach, which soon joins the Rhine, in a beautiful situation, surrounded by vineyards and gardens. It contains 5690 industrious inhabitants, occupied in various manufactures.

BRUCK, a circle in the Austrian province of Steyermark, extending over 1496 square miles, or 917,440 acres. It is situated in a mountainous district, with valleys between the ranges, of moderate fertility. In 1817 it contained 62,538 inhabitants. The chief place, of the same name, at the junction of the river Mur with the Murz, contains about 2000 inhabitants.

BRUCKENAU, a city of 1550 inhabitants, the capital of a magistracy of the same name, in the circle of the Lower Maine, and kingdom of Bavaria. It extends over a hundred and nine square miles, and contains, besides the city, twenty-two villages, with 9350 inhabitants. It is a poor district, yielding little corn, but abundance of potatoes. The chief employment of the inhabitants consists in making wood ware, especially platters and bowls, and some spinning and weaving flax.

BRÜCKER, JAMES, theologian, historian, philologist, and biographer, was born at Augsburg on the 22d of January 1696. His father, who was a respectable burgher, destined him for the church; and his own inclinations according with his father's wishes, he was sent, at the usual age, to pursue his studies in the university of Jena. Here he took the degree of master of arts in 1718; and in the following year he published his *Tentamen Introductionis in Historiam doctrinæ de Ideis*, in 4to; a work which, having afterwards amplified and completed, he republished under the title of *Historia Philosophica doctrinæ de Ideis*, at Augsburg in 1723. He returned to his native city in 1720; but here his merit having attracted envy rather than recompense, he was induced to accept of the office of parish minister of Kaufbeuren in 1723. In the same year he published a memoir *De Vita et Scriptis Cl. Etingeri*, Augs. 8vo. His reputation having been at length established by these learned works, in 1731 he was elected a member of the Academy of Sciences at Berlin, and soon afterwards he was invited to Augsburg to fill the honourable situation of pastor and senior minister of the church of St Ulrich. He published in the same year three dissertations relating to the history of philosophy, under the title of *Oritum Vindelœum, sive Metematum Historico-philosophicorum tria*, Augsburg, 1731, 8vo. Be-

sides several smaller dissertations on biography and literary history, printed at different times, and which he afterwards collected in his *Miscellanea*, he published at Ulm, in 1737, *New Zusätze verschiedener Vermehrungen, &c. zu den kurtzen Fragen aus der Philosophischen Historie*, 7 vols. 12mo. This work, being a history of philosophy in question and answer, contains many details, especially in the department of literary history, which he has chosen to omit in his greater work on the same subject. He was forced by the booksellers, in opposition to his own opinion, to adopt the crotchet method, which at that time had been rendered popular by the writings of Hubner and Rambach.

In 1741, at Leipzig, appeared the first volume of his great work, *Historia Critica Philosophiæ, a mundi incunabulis ad nostram usque ætatem deducta*. Four other ponderous quartos, completing the first edition of this elaborate history, followed in 1744. Such was the success of this publication, that the first impression, consisting of four thousand copies, was exhausted in twenty-three years, when a new and more perfect edition, the consummation of the labours of half a century devoted to the history of philosophy, was in 1767 given to the world in six volumes quarto. The sixth volume, consisting entirely of supplement and corrections, is applicable to the first as well as to the second edition. Of the merits of this work we shall speak in the sequel.

His attention, however, was not wholly occupied by this stupendous undertaking. The following books would of themselves have been sufficient to exhaust the industry of any ordinary author:—*Pinacotheca Scriptorum nostra ætate literis illustrium*, &c. Augsburg, 1741–55, folio, in five decads. *Ehren Tempel der Deutschen Gelehrtheit in welchen die Bildnisse gelehrter Männer unter den Deutschen aus dem XV. XVI. und XVII. Jahrhundert aufgestellt, und ihre Geschichte, &c. entworfen sind*, Augsburg, 1747–49, 4to, five decads. *Instructiones Historiæ Philosophicæ*, Leipzig, 1747, 8vo, a second edition, ibid. 1756; and a third has been published since Brucker's death, with a continuation by Professor Bern of Leipzig, in 1790. *Miscellanea Historiæ Philosophicæ Literariæ criticæ olim sparsim edita nunc uno fœce collecta*, Augsburg, 1748, 8vo. *Erste Anfangsgründe der Philosophischen Geschichte, als ein Auszug seiner grossen Werke*, Zweyte, Augsburg, Ulm, 1751, 8vo. He likewise superintended and corrected an edition of Luther's translation of the Old and New Testament, with a Commentary extracted from the writings of the English theologians, Leipzig, 1758–70, folio, six parts. His death ensued before this work was finished, which has since been accomplished by Teller. He died at Augsburg in 1770; and he may be added to the catalogue of Huetsius, to prove that literary labour is not incompatible with sound health and longevity. (See *Saxii Onomasticon*; *Biographie Universelle*; *Genesi's Biographie*.)

It is only by his writings on the history of philosophy that Brucker is now known in the literature of Europe. In this study his great work forms an important era, and even at the present day it is the most extensive and elaborate upon the subject. It is, however, a work of which the defects are great, and its errors have been important in their consequences, in proportion to the authority it has acquired. We shall, therefore, hazard a few general observations on the defects which chiefly detract from the perfection and utility of the *Critical History of Philosophy*.

If Brucker had carried into this study a penetration equal to his diligence, and had his general comprehension of the scope and nature of the subject corresponded with the elaborate minuteness of his details, he would

Brucker. have left us a work which might have had some pretensions to be considered as a rational history of human opinion. He lived, however, at a period when these different qualities were only beginning to be conjoined, and when as yet the history of philosophy had been written merely as a chronicle of the passing theories of individuals and sects. To give to the science of history a regular and connected form, and to arrange the narrative of successive events, and still more of successive opinions, according to the relation they bear to principles of established influence, was an attempt of which few in that age had any conception, and of which Brucker certainly had none. In civil history it was then believed that the historian had fulfilled all the duties of his office if he strung together the events which were known or believed to have occurred, in good language, and garnished them occasionally by a few general reflections on the absolute motives of human action. A very different notion is now held of the functions of the historian. He who at present attempts to write the history of any country, must reflect, before he begins, what were the chief occurrences in that history, and what were the revolutions which the manners and constitution of that particular nation have undergone. He must bear with him, from the commencement to the conclusion of his labours, a constant impression that every occurrence should be more or less considered, not only as it took place, and as it bore an influence on contemporary affairs, but as it may have remotely contributed to the events, and the opinions, and the character of succeeding times. But if this be true in regard to the histories of particular nations, it is evident that, by how much the traces of opinions are more light and evanescent than those of events,—by how much the speculations of philosophers whose writings have either perished or come down to us mutilated and obscure, are more difficult to be appreciated in their causes, and connections, and consequences, than the actions of warriors and statesmen,—by so much the more is it necessary in philosophical than in civil history to combine reasoning with erudition, and to substitute the researches of the philosopher for the details of the chronicler. History and philosophy are two different things; and he who would write the history of philosophy must excel in both. Bacon had long ago required this union, and had pointed out the manner in which the historian of literature should endeavour to establish those principles of connection which constitute the soul and charm of such a history; how, by detecting the union of effects and causes, he might be enabled to determine the circumstances favourable or adverse to the sciences; and how, in short, by a species of enchantment he might evoke the literary genius of each different age. The fulfilment of this plan was, however, far beyond the capacity of Brucker, and was an undertaking of which he had even no conception. Better qualified by nature and education for amassing than arranging materials, he devoted his principal attention to a confused compilation of facts, leaving to others their application, the discovery of their mutual connections, and the formation of the scattered fragments into a whole.

The merit of his great work consists entirely in the ample collection of materials. The reader who would extract any rational view of the progress of opinion must peruse it with a perpetual commentary of his own thoughts. He will find no assistance from his author in forming any general views, or in tracing the mutual dependencies of the different parts of the subject. Brucker has discovered the fountains of history, but he has made us drink of them without purifying the draught. Even in this respect his merit has been greatly overrated. Vast as is the body of materials which he has collected, we are always mis-

ing those very things which we might reasonably have expected would have been the first objects of a rational inquirer, and we are continually disappointed of the information we are most anxious to acquire. The idle and slavish attention which he has bestowed on previous compilers, has frequently diverted him from the study of the original authors themselves. Quoting the passages of the ancients from others, or trusting, perhaps, to the reference of an index, he has frequently overlooked those very testimonies which could have given us the most authentic knowledge of the opinions or characters of ages and individuals. He has often presented the authorities he has adduced, mutilated or misapplied; and this either from not having sufficiently studied these passages in their general connection with the system they illustrate, or from having been unable to withdraw them from the obscurity in which they were involved. He has shown no critical sagacity in distinguishing the spurious from the authentic, or in balancing the comparative weight of his authorities. He has frequently transcribed where he ought to have explained the words of the original authors; and without taking into account the different value of the same term in different nations and ages, he has left us to apply a doubtful or erroneous meaning to words which might have been easily rendered by other expressions, and to suppose a distinction in the sense where there only existed a difference in the language. The glaring errors, even, which occasionally occur in his expositions of the Grecian philosophy, while they are inconsistent with any critical knowledge of the tongue, would make us suspect that he was in the habit of relying on the treacherous aid of translations. In short, if we knew nothing more of the ancient philosophers than what we acquire from Brucker, we should be often obliged to attribute to them opinions so obscure, or so absurd, that we must either believe ourselves wrong in the interpretation, or be unable to comprehend the cause of all the admiration and reverence they have received.

He has discovered little skill in his analysis of the different systems of philosophy; and the confusion of what is essential and principal with what is accidental and subordinate clearly evinces that these abridgments were thrown together while acquiring, in detail, a knowledge expressly for the purpose, instead of being the consummation of a long and familiar meditation on the subjects in all their modifications and dependencies. He has dwelt with the most irksome minuteness on every unimportant and doubtful circumstance in the lives of the philosophers; but he has too often overlooked the particular and general causes that produced an influence on the destinies of their philosophy. The apophoric method which he has adopted prevents him from following a consecutive argument throughout its various windings. The most convincing reasoning in his hands loses much of its demonstration and beauty; and every ingenious paradox comes forth from his alembic a mere *caput mortuum*,—a residue from which every finer principle has been expelled. Where the genius of the philosopher is discovered more in the exposition and defence than in the original selection and intrinsic stability of his tenets, Brucker has not found the art of doing justice both to the philosopher and his opinions, or of conveying to the reader any conception of the general value of the original. This last defect, it must, however, be acknowledged, is more or less inseparable from every abstract of opinions, where it is always necessary to separate in some degree what is essential to the subject from what is peculiar to the man. He has relieved the sterility of his analysis by none of the elegancies of which the subject was susceptible. Without any pretension to purity, his diction is defective even in

Brucker.

Brucker. precision; and his sentences, at all times void of harmony and grace, are abrupt, and often intricate in their structure.

The person, therefore, who would attempt to write a history of philosophy without the imperfections of that of Brucker, must draw from obscurity many important facts hitherto omitted; he must arrange and combine these in a more perspicuous order; and, above all, he must review the opinions he shall thus relate and methodise with a more accurate criticism. He ought not to write of Peripatetics like a disciple of Aristotle, of Platonists like a pupil of Proclus, nor of the doctrines of the Porch like a follower of Zeno. Still less must he compare the tenets of one sect by the principles of another; or endeavour to estimate doctrines, dubious in themselves, by reference to a standard equally arbitrary and contingent. He must place himself, to use the language of Lucretius, upon the highest pinnacle of the temple of science, from which he may look calmly back, and compare and study the doctrines of all these departed sages, without being himself involved in the partialities of particular sects or opinions,—

Despicere unde quest alios, passimque videre
Errare, atque viam palanteis querere veri.

He must honour the genius of all alike, and believe that all are deserving of commendation, although all are more or less subject to error. He ought, in short, to be a philosopher superior even to the prejudices of philosophy.

If we take a survey of what has been attempted since the death of Brucker in accomplishing a more perfect history of philosophy, we shall find that more has been done in illustrating the philosophical tenets of particular sects, or the progress of particular portions of science, than in giving a comprehensive view of the general history of thought. In France, in Italy, and in our own country, those who have laboured in this department, far from being able to correct the errors of Brucker, have, in general, through defect of erudition, been wholly indebted to his industry for their materials, and have been content to rely on his accuracy with more than Pythagorean faith. If we except some ingenious speculations, which are more of the nature of philosophical essays on the history of philosophy, and which endeavour rather to illustrate the general spirit than to detail the particular opinions of the philosophers, there is nothing valuable on this subject to be found in the literature of these countries. Among the learned of his own country Brucker has never enjoyed a very distinguished reputation; and the Germans, while they were the most capable of discovering his defects, have had the honour of most sedulously and successfully endeavouring to supply them. We are indebted to them especially for many valuable treatises on the history of particular portions of philosophy, in which we find at length a profound reasoning united to an extensive and original erudition. The works of Meiners, Fülleborn, Tiedmann, and perhaps Buhle, deserve especially to be distinguished. An undertaking, however, which, from the extent of its plan, as well as the ability of its execution, claims particular notice, is the *History of Philosophy*, by Professor Tennemann of Jena. This work, as far as it is completed, affords us the most accurate, the most minute, and the most rational view we yet possess of the different systems of philosophy, in their intrinsic and relative bearings. The author has not only given us a minute analysis of each system, the result of a profound and familiar study of the original philosopher, but he has also displayed to us his philosophy, divested of its peculiarities, and compared with others by a general and impartial review. The main defect of this work, at least in reference to readers not German, is, that, like Buhle and the other disciples of Kant, he has taken the criti-

cal philosophy as the vantage-ground from which to make his survey of all former systems. Thus the continual reference to the peculiar doctrines of the school of Kant, and the adoption of its language, render it frequently impossible for those who have not studied the dark works of this modern Heraclitus to understand the strictures of Tennemann on the systems even of Aristotle or Plato. (v.v.)

BRUGES, a city, the capital of the province of East Flanders, and of the circle, containing seven cantons and seventy-six communes, to which it gives the same name, in the Netherlands. At one period it was the greatest commercial city in Europe; and though, from political events, its importance has been reduced, the remains of its ancient wealth are visible in the houses and public buildings. It stands on the canal which passes from Ghent to the sea at Ostend, and which is navigable for large flat-bottomed barks. It is still a manufacturing city of considerable industry, producing a variety of goods in linen, woollen, and silk, and furnishing many articles, chiefly for home consumption. The land around it is brought to the highest possible state of cultivation, and furnishes ample stores of necessaries to the dense population. The churches, especially that of Notre Dame, are objects of curiosity to all visitors, as well as the Gothic town-house and the hall of justice. The inhabitants are about 35,000. Long. 3. 7. 47. E. Lat. 51. 12. 40. N.

BRUIN, JONN DE, professor of natural philosophy and mathematics at Utrecht, was born at Gorcum in 1620. He had uncommon skill in dissecting animals, and was a great lover of experiments. He also made observations in astronomy. He published dissertations *De vi altærie; De corporum gravitate et levitate; De cognitione Dei naturali; De lucis causa et origine*, &c. He had a dispute with Isaac Vossius, to whom he wrote a letter, printed at Amsterdam in 1693, wherein he criticises Vossius's book *De Natura et Proprietate Lucis*, and strenuously maintains the hypothesis of Descartes. He died in 1675, after he had been professor twenty-three years; and his funeral oration was pronounced four days after by M. Grævis.

BRUMALIA, in *Roman Antiquity*, festivals of Bacchus, celebrated twice a year, the first on the 12th of the kalends of March, and the other on the 15th of the kalends of November. They were instituted by Romulus, who, during those feasts, used to entertain the senate. Among the heathen festivals which the primitive Christians were much inclined to observe, Tertullian mentions the *brumæ* or *brumalia*.

BRUMOY, PETER, a learned Jesuit, born at Rouen in 1668, distinguished himself in his youth by his talents for the belles lettres; and during his whole life was beloved for his probity, his virtue, and the goodness of his heart. He wrote many works, the most considerable of which is his *Theatre of the Greeks*. He died at Paris in 1742.

BRUN, CHARLES LE, was descended of a family of distinction in Scotland, and born in the year 1619. His father was a statutory by profession. He discovered, it is said, such an early inclination for painting, that at three years of age he used to take coals, and design on the hearths and sides of the chimney, only by the light of the fire; and at twelve he drew the picture of his uncle so well that it still passes for a fine piece. His father being employed in the gardens at Sequier, and having brought his son along with him, the chancellor of that name took a liking to him, and placed him with Simon Vouet, an eminent painter. He was afterwards sent to Fontainebleau to copy some of Raphael's pictures. The chancellor sent him next to Italy, and supported him there for six years. Le Brun, in his return, met with the celebrated Poussin, by whose conversation he greatly improved himself in his art, and contracted a friendship with him which terminated

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only with their lives. A painting of St Stephen, which he finished in 1651, raised his reputation to the highest pitch. Soon after this, the king, upon the representation of M. Colbert, made him his first painter, and conferred on him the order of St Michael. His majesty employed two hours every day to see him work while he was painting the family of Darius at Fontainebleau. About the year 1662 he began his five large pieces of the history of Alexander the Great, in which he is said to have set the actions of that famous conqueror in a more glorious light than Quintus Curtius has done in his history. He procured several advantages for the royal academy of painting and sculpture at Paris, and formed the plan of another for the students of his own nation at Rome. There was scarcely any thing done for the advancement of the fine arts in which he was not consulted. It was through the interest of M. Colbert that the king gave him the direction of all his works, particularly of his royal manufactory at the Gobelins, where he had a handsome house with a genteel salary assigned to him. He was also made director and chancellor of the royal academy, and showed the greatest desire to encourage the fine arts in France. He was endowed with a vast inventive genius, which extended itself to arts of every kind; and he was well acquainted with the manners and history of all nations. Besides his extraordinary talents, his manners were so polished, and his address so pleasing, that he attracted the regard and affection of the whole court of France, where, by the places and pensions conferred on him by the king's liberality, he made a very considerable figure. Le Brun was the author of two treatises, one on physiognomy, and the other on the different characters of the passions. He died at Paris in 1690.

BRUNDISIUM, or BRUNDISIUM. See **BRINDISI**.
BRUNN, a circle in the Austrian province of Moravia, extending over 1815 square miles, or 1,116,600 acres. It comprehends thirteen cities, with their respective suburbs, fifty-six market-towns, 649 villages, and 52,143 houses. The inhabitants amounted in the year 1823 to 354,175. The northern part of the circle is a portion of the Moravian mountain range, which yields abundant mineral riches. Between the mountains the land is highly productive in corn and cattle. It is the chief manufacturing district of the imperial dominions, and produces good woollen, linen, and cotton goods of all descriptions. The city of Brunn is the capital of the circle of that name, as well as of the province of Moravia. It stands at the junction of the river Zwitzawa with the Schwartz. It is fortified, but in too weak and ancient a way to be now defensible, and the citadel, from neglect, is falling to decay. The situation is very picturesque, and the buildings are magnificent, but the streets rather narrow. It is on the whole the most pleasing city in the Austrian dominions. Its trade is very extensive. Its manufactures are chiefly fine woollen and linen goods; it is also the principal mart for the exchange of the commodities of the south and north of Europe, and is benefited by the excellent roads through it to Vienna and Italy on the one hand, and to Poland, Prussia, and Saxony on the other. The increase of inhabitants has been rapid. In the year 1814 they were 25,760, and in the year 1827 they amounted to 33,350. Long. 16. 30. 30. E. Lat. 49. 11. 32. N.

BRUNO, JORDANO, was born at Nola, in the kingdom of Naples, and about the year 1582 began to call in question some of the tenets of the Romish church, which occasioned his retiring to Geneva; but after two years stay there he expressed his aversion to Calvinism in such a manner that he was expelled the city. After having staid some time at Lyons, Toulouse, and Paris, he came to London, and continued two years in the house of M. Castle-

nau, the French ambassador. He was very well received by Queen Elizabeth and the politer part of the court. His principal friends were Sir Philip Sidney and Sir Fulk Greville. With these and some others of their club Bruno held assemblies; but as they treated of subjects of a very delicate nature, which could not suit the taste or capacity of every body, they kept the door always shut, and none but select persons were admitted into their company. At Sir Philip's request he composed his *Spaccio della Bestia Trionfante*, which was printed in 8vo, 1584, and dedicated to that gentleman. From England he went to Wittenberg, and thence to Prague, where he printed several tracts, in which he openly avowed atheistical principles. After visiting some other towns in Germany, he made a tour to Venice, where he was apprehended by order of the inquisition, tried, condemned, and, refusing to retract, burnt at the stake on the 9th February 1600.

BRUNSWICK, DUCHY OF. See **GERMANY**.

BRUNSWICK, a city, the capital of the duchy of the same name, in Germany. It is situated on the small navigable river Oker, which joins the Aller, and then falls into the Weser. It is an open place, the fortifications having been demolished and converted into public walks. It is a well-built city, on a fruitful plain. The palace, in the ancient German style, is large, inelegant, and incommensurate. There are eleven churches, of which nine, including the cathedral, are allotted to the Lutheran worship, and one each to the Catholics and the Reformed. The number of inhabitants in 1827 was 36,200. These find employment partly in the trades and professions arising from the seat of government, partly from the trade created by the great fairs annually held, but chiefly from manufactures of almost every kind of commodity, the principal of which is perhaps that of brewing beer and vinegar, and the distillation of corn. There are several cabinets, museums, libraries, and collections of pictures belonging to or under the patronage of the duke. Long. 10. 26. 22. E. Lat. 52. 15. 35. N.

BRUNSWICK, a post-town of Maine, in Cumberland county, United States. It is situated on the south-west side of the Androscoggin, and contains 2331 inhabitants. Long. 69. 55. W. Lat. 43. 53. N.

BRUNTISLAND. See **BURNTISLAND**.

BRUSH, an assemblage of hairs and hogs' bristles, fastened in the holes of a wooden handle or board, pierced for that purpose, and serving to cleanse dirty bodies by rubbing therewith. The manner of making brushes is by folding the hair or bristle in two, bringing it by means of a packthread, which is engaged in the fold, through the holes with which the wood is pierced all over, and afterwards fastening it therein with glue. When the holes are thus filled, the ends of the hair are cut to make the surface even.

Shearman's Brush is made of wild boars' bristles, and serves to lay the wool or nap of cloth, after shearing it for the last time.

BRUSH, among painters, a larger and coarser kind of pencil, made of hogs' bristles, wherewith to lay the colours on their large pieces. The Chinese painter's brush consists of the stalk of a plant, whose fibres being fretted at both ends, and tied again, serve for a brush.

BRUSSELS, a city, one of the capitals of the kingdom of the Netherlands, and till the separation of Holland with Belgium, alternately with the Hague the seat of the government. It is also the capital of the province of South Brabant, and of the circle, containing ten cantons and a hundred and twenty-nine communes, which takes its name. It is built partly on a plain through which the river Senne runs, and partly on the side of a hill which rises above it. The buildings in the lower part or

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Brute. old town are larger, and, though of antique forms, handsome; but the upper or new town is one of the most splendid collection of buildings to be found on any part of the Continent. The park, near to which are the royal palace, the houses of the legislature, and the dwellings of persons of the first rank, is a very pleasing object. The most remarkable buildings are the town-house, with a beautiful tower three hundred and sixty-five feet in height, the theatre, the arsenal, the church of St Gudule, the cathedral, and the church of the Capuchins. Brussels is a manufacturing city of great activity. It has long been celebrated for its lace and its carpets; but though the demand for these goods has rather diminished, there have been substituted others whose demands exceed theirs. Very extensive establishments have been formed for making cotton goods of all kinds, woollens of a superior quality, hats, paper, glass, soap, starch, chemical preparations, and various minute articles for dress and furniture. There are, besides, distilleries, refineries for salt and sugar, and several large breweries. Coach-making is a very important branch of industry, and all kinds of carriages are elegantly built. This trade employs many hundreds of workmen. There are in Brussels establishments for the promotion of learning, science, and the fine arts, with collections of paintings, and a valuable library of 120,000 volumes. With the exception of London, no city in Europe has made so great progress, either in extent, in wealth, or in embellishments, as Brussels. The population in 1814 was 72,000, but it is now 100,000. Long. 4. 16. 10. E. Lat. 50. 59. 50. N.

BRUTE, a general name for all animals except mankind.

Among brutes the monkey kind bear the nearest resemblance to man, both in the external shape and internal structure, but more in the former than in the latter. In the monkey kind the highest and the nearest approach to the likeness of man is the orang outang, or *Homo Sylvestris*. (See *MAMMALIA*.) The structure and economy of brutes make the objects of what is called *COMPARATIVE ANATOMY*. (See vol. iii. page 1, of this work.)

Philosophers have been much puzzled about the essential characteristics of brutes, by which they may be distinguished from man. Some define a brute to be an *animal not risible, or a living creature incapable of laughter*; others call them *mute animals*. The Peripatetics allowed them a sensitive power, but denied them a rational one. The Platonists allowed them reason and understanding, though in a degree less pure and refined than that of men. Lactantius allows every thing to brutes which men have, except a sense of religion; and even this has been ascribed to them by some sceptics. Descartes maintained that brutes are mere inanimate machines, absolutely destitute not only of reason, but of all thought and perception, and that all their actions are only consequences of the exquisite mechanism of their bodies. This system, however, is much older than Descartes; it was borrowed by him from Gomez Pereira, a Spanish physician, who employed thirty years in composing a treatise which he entitled *Antonius Margarita*, from the Christian names of his father and mother. It was published in 1534; but his opinion had not the honour of gaining partisans, nor even of being refuted, so that it died with him. Even Pereira seems not to have been the inventor of this notion, something like it having been held by several of the ancients, as we find from Plutarch and St Augustin. Others who rejected the Cartesian hypothesis, have maintained that brutes are endowed with a soul essentially inferior to that of men; and to this soul some have allowed immortality, others not. And, lastly, in a treatise published by one Bougeant, a Jesuit, entitled *A Philosophical Amusement on the Lan-*

guage of Beasts, he affirms that they are animated by evil spirits or devils.

The opinion of Descartes was probably invented, or at least adopted, by him, to refute two great objections: one against the immortality of the souls of brutes, if they were allowed to have any; the other against the goodness of God, in suffering creatures who had never sinned to be subjected to so many miseries. The arguments in favour of it may be stated as follow: 1. It is certain that a number of human actions are merely mechanical, because they are done imperceptibly to the agent, and without any direction from the will, which are to be ascribed to the impression of objects and the primordial disposition of the machine, wherein the influence of the soul has no share; of which number are all habits of the body acquired from the reiteration of certain actions. In all such circumstances human beings are no better than automata. 2. There are some natural movements so involuntary that we cannot restrain them; for example, that admirable mechanism ever on the watch to preserve an equilibrium when we stoop, bend, or incline our bodies in any way, and when we walk upon a narrow plank. 3. The natural liking for, and antipathy against, certain objects, which in children precede the power of knowing and discriminating them, and which sometimes in grown persons triumph over all the efforts of reason, are all phenomena to be accounted for from the wonderful mechanism of the body, and are so many cogent proofs of that irresistible influence which objects have on the human frame. 4. Every one knows how much our passions depend on the degree of motion into which the blood is put, and the reciprocal impressions caused by the animal spirits between the heart and brain, that are so closely connected by their nerves; and if such effects may be produced by such simple mechanical means as the mere increase of motion in the blood, without any direction of the will, we are not to wonder at the actions of brutes being the effects only of a refined mechanism, without thought or perception. 5. A further proof will arise from a consideration of the many wonderful effects which even the ingenuity of men has contrived to bring about by mechanical means; the an-droide, for instance, of Mr Kempell, which played at chess. Now it is not to be questioned but that the mechanism of the body of the meanest animal infinitely surpasses that of Mr Kempell's machine; and what can be the consequence of this, but that the actions of that animal must be proportionally more surprising than those of the wooden chess player? See *ANDROIDES* and *AUTOMATON*.

The above is a short abstract of all the arguments that are brought in favour of the Cartesian system; but they are evidently very far from being conclusive. They are deficient, in the first place, because, though we allow them in the utmost extent the Cartesians themselves can desire, they prove only the possibility of brutes being inanimate, and that the power of God actually could produce such and such actions from inanimate machines; but that he has actually done so, they have not the least tendency to prove. In the second place, the Cartesian argument is insufficient, because it has no limits, and knows not where to stop. By the same method of arguing every man might prove his neighbour to be an inanimate machine; for though every individual be conscious of his own thoughts, he is not so of those of his neighbours; and it no more exceeds the power of God to cause an inanimate machine to perform the actions of a man than those of a beast. Neither are the two objections which the hypothesis is calculated to answer to be at all admitted as arguments in its favour. They are, 1. That if we allow brutes to have souls, they must be immaterial, and consequently immortal; and, 2. It seems a contradiction to the goodness of God to think

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that he should subject innocent creatures to such a multitude of evils as we see the brute creation endure in this world. The first of these is productive of no bad consequences to us, though it should be granted; and if it is supposed that the brute creatures are really immortal, the second objection vanishes, because, in the enjoyment of endless felicity, all temporary afflictions, how severe soever, must be swallowed up as though they had never been.

As to a positive proof on the other side, namely, that brutes are really endowed with sensation and consciousness, there is undoubtedly the same evidence for the sensibility of brutes that there is for that of mankind. We see brutes avoid pain as much as we do; and we likewise see them seek for pleasure, and express their happiness in the enjoyment of certain things by signs not at all equivocal. Therefore, though we grant the possibility of all this being the effect of mere mechanism, yet, as we are conscious that in ourselves similar effects are produced by a sentient principle, we have all the reason in the world to conclude that in brutes they are likewise derived from a principle of sensation, especially seeing we know of no kind of mechanism in any other part of nature which produces any thing like the effects just mentioned; and until we see that a mechanism of this kind does take place in some part of nature, we have no reason to suppose it in any. As to those actions of the human body in which it seems to move spontaneously, like an automaton, without the direction of the mind or will, it is almost superfluous to observe, that they were not performed in this manner originally, but required very great exertions of the will and intellectual faculty before the body could be brought to perform them easily; so that from these nothing can be inferred. Add to this, that divine revelation sets forth to us in many places the brute creation as objects of mercy, which could not be done without the highest absurdity, if they were not really capable of feeling pleasure and pain as well as we.

The most rational opposers of the Cartesian scheme maintain that brutes are endowed with a principle of sensation as well as we, though of an inferior nature to ours. Great disputes, however, have arisen on this subject, some maintaining that the soul of brutes is merely sensitive, and that they are altogether destitute of reflection and understanding; others, that they do not only reason, but make a better use of it than men do. That the brutes are endowed only with sensation, and totally destitute of all power of reflection, or even reasoning, is what can by no means be maintained on good grounds; neither can it be asserted that they act entirely from instinct or a blind propensity to certain things without knowing why or wherefore. In numberless instances, needless to be mentioned here, but which will readily occur to every reader, it is evident that education will get the better of many of the natural instincts of brutes, which could never be the case were they absolutely incapable of reasoning. On the other hand, it is equally certain that they are by no means capable of education in the same degree that men are, neither are the rational exertions of beasts at all to be compared even with those of the meanest savages. One remarkable instance of this is in the use of the element of fire. The most savage nations have known how to make this element subservient to their purposes; or if some have been found who have been entirely ignorant of its existence, they have quickly learned its uses on seeing it employed by others; but though many of the brute creatures are delighted with warmth, and have opportunities every day of seeing how fire is supplied with fuel, and thereby preserved, it never was known that one of them attempted to preserve a fire by this means. This shows a strange defect of rationality, unaccountable upon any other

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supposition than that the soul or sentient principle of brutes is somehow or other inferior in its nature to that of man; but still it is a sentient principle, capable of perceptions as quick as our own, and in many instances much more so.

Father Bougeant supports his opinion of the spirits of brute creatures being devils in the following manner:—Having proved at large that beasts naturally have understanding, he says, "Reason naturally inclines us to believe that beasts have a spiritual soul; and the only thing that opposes this sentiment is the consequences that might be inferred from it. If brutes have a soul, that soul must be either matter or spirit; it must be one of the two, and yet you dare affirm neither. You dare not say it is matter, because you must then necessarily suppose matter to be capable of thinking; nor will you say that it is spirit, this opinion bringing with it consequences contrary to the principles of religion; and this, among others, that man would differ from beasts only by the degrees of plus and minus, which would demolish the very foundation of all religion. Therefore, if I can elude all these consequences; if I can assign to beasts a spiritual soul without striking at the doctrines of religion, it is evident that my system, being moreover the most agreeable to reason, is the only warrantable hypothesis. Now I shall, and can do it, with the greatest ease imaginable. I even have means, by the same method, to explain many very obscure passages in the holy Scripture, and to resolve some very great difficulties which are not well confuted. This we shall unfold in a more particular manner."

"Religion teaches us that the devils, from the very moment they had sinned, were reprobate, and that they were doomed to burn for ever in hell; but the church has not yet determined whether they do actually endure the torments to which they are condemned. It may then be thought that they do not yet suffer them, and that the execution of the verdict brought against them is reserved for the day of the final judgment. Now, what I pretend to infer from hence is, that, till doomsday comes, God, in order not to suffer so many legions of reprobate spirits to be of no use, has distributed them through the several spaces of the world, to serve the designs of his providence, and make his omnipotence to appear. Some continuing in their natural state, busy themselves in tempting men, in seducing and tormenting them, either immediately, as Job's devil, and those that lay hold of human bodies, or by the ministry of sorcerers or phantoms. These wicked spirits are those whom the Scripture calls the powers of darkness, or the powers of the air. God, with the others, makes millions of beasts of all kinds, which serve for the uses of men, which fill the universe, and cause the wisdom and omnipotence of the Creator to be admired. By that means I can easily conceive, on the one hand, how the devils can tempt us; and, on the other, how beasts can think, know, have sentiments, and a spiritual soul, without any way striking at the doctrines of religion. I am no longer surprised to see them have forecast, memory, and judgment. I should rather have occasion to wonder at their having no more, since their soul very likely is more perfect than ours. But I discover the reason of this; it is because, in beasts as well as in ourselves, the operations of the mind are dependent on the material organs of the machine to which it is united; and those organs being grosser and less perfect than in us, it follows that the knowledge, the thoughts, and the other spiritual operations of the beasts, must of course be less perfect than ours; and if these proud spirits know their own diabolical state, what a humiliation must it be to them thus to see themselves reduced to the condition of beasts! But whether they know it or not, so shameful a degradation is still, with regard to them, the primary effect of the

Brute. divine vengeance I just mentioned; it is an anticipated hell."

Having mentioned the prejudices against this hypothesis, such particularly as the pleasure which people of sense and religion take in beasts and birds, especially all sorts of domestic animals, he proceeds, "Do we love beasts for their own sakes? No. As they are altogether strangers to human society, they can have no other appointment but that of being useful and amusing. And what care we whether it be a devil or any other creature that amuses us? The thought of it, far from shocking, pleases me mightily. I with gratitude admire the goodness of the Creator, who gave me so many little devils to serve and amuse me. If I am told that these poor devils are doomed to suffer eternal tortures, I admire God's decrees, but I have no manner of share in that dreadful sentence; I leave the execution of it to the sovereign judge; and, notwithstanding this, I live with my little devils as I do with a multitude of people, of whom religion informs me that a great number shall be damned. But the cure of a prejudice is not to be effected in a moment; it is done by time and reflection: give me leave, then, lightly to touch upon this difficulty, in order to observe a very important thing to you.

"Persuaded as we are that beasts have intelligence, have we not all of us a thousand times pitied them for the excessive evils which the majority of them are exposed to, and in reality suffer? How unhappy is the condition of horses! we are apt to say upon seeing a horse whom an unmerciful carman is murdering with blows. How miserable is the dog whom they are breaking for hunting! How dismal is the fate of beasts living in woods! they are perpetually exposed to the injuries of the weather; always seized with apprehensions of becoming the prey of hunters, or of some wilder animal; for ever obliged, after long fatigue, to look out for some poor insipid food; often suffering cruel hunger; and subject, moreover, to illness and death! If men are subject to a multitude of miseries that overwhelm them, religion acquaints us with the reason of it, viz. the being born sinners. But what crimes can beasts have committed by birth to be subject to evils so very cruel? What are we, then, to think of the horrible excesses of miseries undergone by beasts? miseries, indeed, far greater than those endured by men. This is, in any other system, an incomprehensible mystery; whereas nothing is more easy to be conceived from the system I propose. The rebellious spirits deserve a punishment still more rigorous, and happy it is for them that their punishment is deferred. In a word, God's goodness is vindicated, man himself is justified; for what right can we have, without necessity, and often in the way of mere diversion, to take away the lives of millions of beasts, if God had not authorized us so to do? And beasts being as sensible as ourselves of pain and death, how could a just and merciful God have given man that privilege, if they were not so many guilty victims of the divine vengeance?"

"But hear still something more convincing, and of greater consequence. Beasts by nature are extremely vicious. We know well that they never sin, because they are not free; but this is the only condition wanting to make them sinners. The voracious birds and beasts of prey are cruel. Many insects of one and the same species devour one another. Cats are perfidious and ungrateful, monkeys are mischievous, and dogs envious. All beasts in general are jealous and revengeful to excess, not to mention many other vices we observe in them; and at the same time that they are by nature so very vicious, they have, say we, neither the liberty nor any help to resist the bias that hurries them into so many bad actions. They are, according to the schools, necessitated

to do evil, to disconcert the general order, to commit whatever is most contrary to the notion we have of natural justice and to the principles of virtue. What monsters are these in a world originally created for order and justice to reign in? This is, in good part, what formerly persuaded the Manicheans that there were of necessity two orders of things, one good and the other bad; and that the beasts were not the work of the good principle: a monstrous error! But how then shall we believe that beasts came out of the hands of their Creator with qualities so very strange! If man is so very wicked and corrupt, it is because he has himself through sin perverted the happy nature that God had given him at his creation. Of two things then we must say one; either that God has taken delight in making beasts so vicious as they are, and of giving us in them models of what is most shameful in the world; or that they have, like man, original sin, which has perverted their primitive nature.

"The first of these propositions finds very difficult access to the mind, and is an express contradiction to the holy Scriptures, which say, that whatever came out of God's hands at the time of the creation of the world was good, yea very good. What good can there be in a monkey's being so very mischievous, a dog so full of envy, a cat so malicious? But then many authors have pretended that beasts, before man's fall, were different from what they are now; and that it was in order to punish man that they became so wicked. But this opinion is a mere supposition, of which there is not the least footing in holy Scripture. It is a pitiful subterfuge to elude a real difficulty. This at most might be said of the beasts, with whom man has a sort of correspondence; but not at all of the birds, fishes, and insects, which have no manner of relation to him. We must then have recourse to the second proposition, that the nature of beasts has, like that of man, been corrupted by some original sin: another hypothesis, void of foundation, and equally inconsistent with reason and religion, in all the systems which have been hitherto espoused concerning the souls of beasts. What party are we to take? Why, admit of my system, and all is explained. The souls of beasts are refractory spirits, which have made themselves guilty towards God. The sin in beasts is no original sin; it is a personal crime, which has corrupted and perverted their nature in its whole substance; hence all the vices and corruption we observe in them, though they can be no longer criminal, because God, by irrevocably reprobating them, has at the same time divested them of their liberty."

These quotations contain the strength of Father Bougeant's hypothesis, which also has had its followers; but the reply to it is very obvious. Beasts, though remarkably mischievous, are not completely so; they are in many instances capable of gratitude and love, which devils cannot possibly be. The very same passions which are implanted in the brutes exist in the human nature; and if we choose to argue from the existence of those passions, and the ascendancy they at some times have over mankind, we may say with as great justice that the souls of men are devils, as that the souls of brutes are devils. All that can reasonably be inferred from the greater prevalence of the malignant passions among the brutes than among men, is, that the former have less rationality than men; and accordingly it is found that among savages, who exercise their reason less than other men, every species of barbarity is practised without being deemed a crime.

On the present subject there is a very ingenious treatise in German, published by Professor Bergman, under the title of "Researches designed to show what the brute animals certainly are not, and also what they probably are." That they are not machines, he proves with more

Brute. detail than seemed necessary for refuting a hypothesis which would equally tend to make us all machines. It is certain that the half-reasoning elephant cannot be deemed a machine by us, from any other consideration than that he goes upon four feet, while we go upon two; and he might as well take us for mere machines, because we go upon two feet, while he goes upon four.

But if animals are not mere machines, what are they? Manifestly sensitive beings, with an immaterial principle; and thinking or reasoning beings to a certain degree. In certain classes of animals this appears evident to our author, who seems to have observed with great sagacity and attention their various operations and proceedings, their ways and means, &c. He thinks it impossible to deduce this variety of action, in any animals, if we except those of the lowest classes in the gradation of intelligence, from a general and uniform instinct. For they accommodate their operations to times and circumstances. They combine; they choose the favourable moment; they avail themselves of the occasion, and seem to receive instruction by experience. Many of their operations announce reflection: the bird repairs a shattered nest, instead of constructing instinctively a new one; the hen who has been robbed of her eggs changes her place in order to lay the remainder with more security; the cat discovers both care and artifice in concealing her kittens. Again, it is evident that on many occasions animals know their faults and mistakes, and correct them; they sometimes contrive the most ingenious methods of obtaining their ends, and when one method fails have recourse to another; and they have, without doubt, a kind of language for the mutual communication of their ideas. How is all this to be accounted for, says our author, unless we suppose them endowed with the powers of perceiving, thinking, remembering, comparing, and judging? They have these powers, indeed, in a degree inferior to that in which they are possessed by the human species, and form classes below them in the graduated scale of intelligent beings. But still it seems to our author unreasonable to exclude them from the place which the principles of sound philosophy, and facts ascertained by constant observation, assign to them in the great and diversified sphere of life, sensation, and intelligence. He does not, however, consider them as beings whose actions are directed to moral ends, nor consequently as accountable and proper subjects for reward or punishment in a future world.

That brute animals possess reflection and sentiment, and are susceptible of the kindly as well as the irascible passions, independently of sexual attachment and natural affection, is evident from the numerous instances of affection and gratitude daily observable in different animals, particularly the dog. Of these and other sentiments, such as pride, and even a sense of glory, the elephant exhibits proofs equally surprising and undoubted.

As to the natural affection of brutes, says an ingenious writer, "the more I reflect on it the more I am astonished at its effects. Nor is the violence of this affection more wonderful than the shortness of its duration. Thus every hen is in her turn the virago of the yard; in proportion to the helplessness of her brood; and will fly in the face of a dog or a sow, in defence of those chickens which in a few weeks she will drive before her with relentless cruelty. This affection sublimates the passions, quickens the invention, and sharpens the sagacity of the brute creation. Thus a hen, just become a mother, is no longer that placid bird she used to be; but, with feathers standing on end, wings hovering, and clucking note, she runs about like one possessed. Dams will throw themselves in the way of the greatest danger, in order to avert it from their progeny. Thus a partridge will tumble along before a sportsman, in

Brute. order to draw away the dogs from her helpless covey. In the time of nidification the most feeble birds will assault the most rapacious. All the hirundines of a village are up in arms at the sight of a hawk, whom they will persecute till he leaves that district. A very exact observer has often remarked, that a pair of ravens nesting in the rock of Gibraltar would suffer no vulture or eagle to rest near their station, but would drive them from the hill with amazing fury; even the blue thrush, at the season of breeding, would dart out from the clefts of the rocks to chase away the kestrel or the sparrow-hawk. If you stand near the nest of a bird that has young, she will not be induced to betray them by an inadvertent fondness, but will wait about at a distance with meat in her mouth for an hour together. The fly-catcher builds every year in the vines that grow on the walls of my house. A pair of these little birds had one year inadvertently placed their nest on a naked bough, perhaps in a shady time, not being aware of the inconvenience that followed; but a hot sunny season coming on before the brood was half fledged, the reflection of the wall became insupportable, and must inevitably have destroyed the tender young, had not affection suggested an expedient, and prompted the parent-birds to hover over the nest all the hotter hours, while with wings expanded and mouths gaping for breath they screened off the heat from their suffering offspring. A further instance I once saw of notable sagacity in a willow-wren, which had built in a bank in my fields. This bird a friend and myself had observed as she sat in her nest; but were particularly careful not to disturb her, though we saw she eyed us with some degree of jealousy. Some days after, as we passed that way, we were desirous of remarking how this brood went on; but no nest could be found, till I happened to take up a large bundle of long green moss, as it were carelessly thrown over the nest in order to dodge the eye of any importunate intruder." (White's *Natural History of Selborne*.)

A wonderful spirit of sociality in the brute creation, independent of sexual attachment, has been frequently remarked. Many horses, though quiet with company, will not stay one minute in a field by themselves; nor can the strongest fences restrain them. A horse has been known to leap out at a stable window through which dung was thrown, after company. Oxen and cows will not fatten by themselves, but will neglect the finest pasture that is not recommended by society. It would be needless to instance sheep, which constantly flock together. But this propensity seems not to be confined to animals of the same species.

Even great disparity of kind and size does not always prevent social advances and mutual fellowship. Of this the following remarkable instance is given in the work above quoted: "A very intelligent and observant person has assured me, that in the former part of his life, keeping but one horse, he happened also on a time to have but one solitary hen. These two incongruous animals spent much of their time together in a lonely orchard, where they saw no creature but each other. By degrees an apparent regard began to take place between these two sequestered individuals. The fowl would approach the quadruped with notes of complacency, rubbing herself gently against his legs; while the horse would look down with satisfaction, and move with the greatest caution and circumspection, lest he should trample on his diminutive companion. Thus by mutual good offices each seemed to console the vacant hours of the other; so that Milton, when he puts the following sentiment in the mouth of Adam, seems to be somewhat mistaken:

Much less can bird with beast, or fish with fowl,
So well converse, nor with the ox the spe."

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To such an instance of attachment between incongruous animals from a spirit of sociality or the feelings of sympathy, may be added the following instance of fondness from a different motive, recounted by Mr. White, in the work already quoted. "My friend had a little helpless leveret brought to him, which the servants fed with milk in a spoon; and about the same time his cat kitten, and the young were dispatched and buried. The hare was soon lost, and supposed to be gone the way of most foundlings, or to be killed by some dog or cat. However, in about a fortnight, as the master was sitting in his garden in the dusk of the evening, he observed his cat, with tail erect, trotting towards him, and calling with little short inward notes of complacency, such as they use towards their kittens, and something gambling after, which proved to be the leveret, which the cat had supported with her milk, and continued to support with great affection. Thus was a graminivorous animal nurtured by a carnivorous and predaceous one.

"Why so cruel and sanguinary a beast as a cat, of the ferocious genus of *Felis*, the *murium leo*, as Linnaeus calls it, should be affected with any tenderness towards an animal which is its natural prey, is not so easy to determine. This strange affection probably was occasioned by that desiderium, those tender maternal feelings, which the loss of her kittens had awakened in her breast, and by the complacency and ease she derived to herself from the procuring her tests to be drawn, which were too much distended with milk, till from habit she became as much delighted with this founding as if it had been her real offspring.

"This incident is no bad solution of that strange circumstance which grave historians as well as the poets assert, of exposed children being sometimes nurtured by female wild beasts that probably had lost their young; for it is not one whit more marvelous that Romulus and Remus, in their infant state, should be nursed by a she-wolf, than that a poor little sucking leveret should be fostered and cherished by a bloody griffin."

But besides the different qualities enumerated, besides reflection and sagacity often in an astonishing degree, and besides the sentiments and actions prompted by social or natural attachments, certain brutes seen on many occasions inspired with a superior faculty, a kind of presentiment or second sight as it were, with regard to events and designs altogether unforeseen by the rational beings whom they concern. Of the faculty alluded to various instances will probably consist with the knowledge or the recollection of most readers: we shall therefore only recite the following, on account of its unquestionable authenticity. At the seat of the Earl of Lichfield, three miles from Blenheim, there is a portrait in the dining-room, of Sir Henry Lee, by Johnston, with that of a mastiff-dog which saved his life. It seems a servant had formed the design of assassinating his master and robbing the house; but the night he had fixed on, the dog, which had never been much noticed by Sir Henry, for the first time followed him up stairs, got under his bed, and could not be got from thence by either master or man: in the dead of night the same servant entered the room to execute his horrid design, but was instantly seized by the dog, and being secured, confessed his intentions. Upon what hypothesis can we account for a degree of foresight and penetration such as this? Or will it be suggested, as a solution of the difficulty, that a dog may possibly become capable in a great measure of understanding human discourse, and of reasoning and acting accordingly; and that, in the present instance, the villain had either uttered his design in soliloquy, or imparted it to an accomplice, in the hearing of the animal?

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It has been much disputed whether the brutes have any language by which they can express their minds to each other; or whether all the noise they make consists only of cries inarticulate, and unintelligible even to themselves. We are, however, too little acquainted with the intellectual faculties of these creatures to be able to determine this point. Certain it is, that their passions, when excited, are generally productive of some peculiar cry; but whether this be designed as an expression of the passion to others, or only a mechanical motion of the muscles of the larynx occasioned by the passion, is what we have no means of knowing. We may, indeed, from analogy, conclude with great reason, that some of the cries of beasts are really expressions of their sentiments; but whether one beast is capable of forming a design, and communicating that design by any kind of language to others, is what we submit to the judgment of the reader, after giving the following instance, which, with others, is brought as a proof of it by Father Bougeant. "A sparrow finding a nest that a martin had just built, standing very conveniently for him, possessed himself of it. The martin, seeing the usurper in her house, called for help to expel him. A thousand martins came full speed, and attacked the sparrow; but the latter being covered on every side, and presenting only his large beak at the entrance of the nest, was invulnerable, and made the boldest of them who durst approach him repent of their temerity. After a quarter of an hour's combat, all the martins disappeared. The sparrow thought he had got the better, and the spectators judged that the martins had abandoned their undertaking. Not in the least. They immediately returned to the charge; and each of them having procured a little of that tempered earth with which they make their nests, they all at once fell upon the sparrow, and inclosed him in the nest to perish there, though they could not drive him thence. Can it be imagined that the martins could have been able to hatch and concert this design all of them together without speaking to each other, or without some medium of communication equivalent to language?" We refer those curious in this subject, to a work in two volumes, published at Amsterdam, entitled *Histoire critique de l'Am des Bêtes, contenant les sentimens des Philosophes Anciens et ceux des Modernes sur cette matière*. Par M. Guer, Avocat.

BRUTIL, in *Ancient Geography*, one of the two peninsulas of Italy (the ancient Calabria being the other); stretching to the south towards Sicily; bounded by the sea on every side except by the isthmus, between the river Laus and the Thuri, where it is terminated by Lucania; and inhabited by the Brutii, for whose country the ancient Romans had no peculiar name, calling both the people and the country indiscriminately *Bruti*.

BRUTON, a market-town of the hundred of the same name, in the county of Somerset, a hundred and nine miles from London, on the river Brue. It is a well-built town, at which the quarter-sessions for the county are held. Some silk mills have been established here, and some trade is carried on in stockings and woollen goods. The market is held on Saturday. The inhabitants amounted in 1801 to 1631, in 1811 to 1536, and in 1821 to 1658.

BRUTUS, or BAVRE, according to the old exploded history of this country by Geoffrey of Monmouth, was the first king of Britain. He is said to have been the son of Sylvius, who was the son of Ascanius the son of Aeneas, and born in Italy. Killing his father by chance, he fled into Greece, where he took prisoner King Pedrosus, who kept the Trojans in slavery, but released him on condition of his providing ships for the Trojans to quit the land. Being advised by the oracle to sail west beyond Gaul, he, after some adventures, landed at Totness in Devonshire. Albion was then inhabited by a remnant of giants, whom Brutus

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destroyed. He called the island after his own name, *Britannia*. He built a city called *New Troy*, since London; and having reigned there twenty-four years, at his death parcelled the island among his three sons: Locrine having the middle, called *Loegria*; Camber, Wales; and Albanach, Scotland.

BRUTUS, *Lucius Junius*, the avenger of the rape of Lucretia, and founder of the Roman republic, flourished five hundred years before Christ. See *Rome*.

BRUTUS, *Marcus*, the passionate lover of his country, and chief conspirator against Cæsar, slew himself on losing the battle of Philippi, forty-two years before Christ. See *Rome*.

BRUX, a city in the circle of Santz, and Austrian kingdom of Bohemia. It is situated on the river Vils, and contains a philosophical institution with six professors, four churches, a monastery, and 2350 inhabitants, who carry on cotton and mineral acid manufactures.

BRUYERE, JOHN DE LA, a celebrated French author, was born at Dourdan in the year 1664. He wrote Characters describing the manners of his age, in imitation of Theophrastus; which characters were not always imaginary or general, but descriptive, as was well known at the time, of persons of considerable rank. In the year 1693 he was by an order of the king chosen a member of the French Academy, and died in the year 1696. "The Characters of Bruyère," says Voltaire, "may justly be ranked among the extraordinary productions of his age. Antiquity furnishes no examples of such a work. A style rapid, concise, and nervous; expression animated and picturesque; a use of language altogether new, without offending against its established rules, struck the public at first; and the allusions which are crowded in almost every page completed its success." When La Bruyère showed his work in manuscript to Malesieu, this last told him that the book would have many readers, and its author many enemies. It somewhat sunk in the opinion of men, when that whole generation whose follies it attacked were passed away; yet as it contains many things applicable to all times and places, it is more than probable that it will never be forgotten."

BRYANT, SIR FRANCIS, a soldier, statesman, and a poet of no inconsiderable fame in his time. In the year 1522, the 14th of Henry VIII., he attended in a military capacity the Earl of Surrey in his expedition to the coast of Brittany, and commanded the troops in the attack of the town of Morlaix, which he took and burnt. For this service he was knighted on the spot by the earl. In 1529 he was sent ambassador to France, and the year following to Rome, on account of the king's divorce. He was gentleman of the privy chamber to king Henry VIII., and to his successor Edward VI., in the beginning of whose reign he marched with the protector against the Scots; and, after the battle of Musselburgh, in which he commanded the light horse, he was made banneret. In 1548 he was appointed chief governor of Ireland, where he married the Countess of Ormond. He died soon afterwards, and was buried at Waterford. He wrote, 1. Songs and Sonnets, some of which were printed with those of the Earl of Surrey and Sir Thomas Wyatt, Lond. 1565; 2. Letters written from Rome concerning the king's divorce, manuscript.

BRYANT, JACOB, a profound scholar, mythologist, and sacred historian, born at Plymouth in 1715. His father had a place in the customs, and was afterwards stationed in Kent, where his son was first sent to a provincial school, from which he was removed to Eton. Here he appears to have remained till 1736, the date of his election to King's College, Cambridge, and he took his degrees of bachelor and master of arts in 1740 and 1744. He returned to Eton in the capacity of private tutor to the late Duke of

Marlborough, then Marquis of Blandford; and the good taste which his pupil showed through life, in the protection of the fine arts, and in the pursuit of science, sufficiently demonstrated the beneficial influence of his instructor's example. In 1756 he went to the Continent as private secretary to the Duke of Marlborough, then master-general of the ordnance and commander-in-chief of the forces in Germany; and he was rewarded, after his return, for his various services to the family, by a lucrative appointment in the ordnance, which allowed him ample leisure to indulge his literary taste in a variety of refined investigations, and to exercise his zeal for the cause of religion in a multitude of works, calculated for the illustration of the Scriptures, and the demonstration of their authenticity and divine authority.

1. His first publication was entitled *Observations and Inquiries* relating to various parts of Ancient History, containing Dissertations on the wind Euruscydon, and on the island Melite, together with an account of Egypt in its most early state, and of the Shepherd Kings, 1767. In this work he attempts to prove that the Melite on which St Paul was wrecked was not Malta, but one of the Illyrian islands in the Adriatic, now called Melide; and he endeavours to illustrate several points in the early history of the oriental, and especially of the Aramic nations.

2. But his most elaborate performance was his *New System or Analysis of Ancient Mythology*, wherein an attempt is made to divest tradition of fable, and to reduce truth to its original purity, 3 vols. 4to, 1774, 1776. In this attempt the author has equally displayed his deep and extensive learning and his inventive fancy; but it must be confessed that on a minute examination, the work exhibits much more of a poetical imagination than of a sound judgment; and that, in endeavouring to substitute etymological for historical evidence, he has been completely unsuccessful. Nothing can afford a more satisfactory kind of proof than etymology taken on a large scale, and considered as a mode of tracing the relations of nations to each other, by the affinities of their languages; since the accumulation of a multitude of probabilities, each weak when taken separately, becomes at last equivalent to absolute certainty. But nothing, on the other hand, can be more fallacious, or more liable to controversy, than single etymological inferences, in particular cases, when one of these slight resemblances is magnified into a striking likeness, and even an identity, which is then made the foundation of a magnificent superstructure in mythology or in history. Mr Richardson has shown, in the Preface to his *Dictionary*, how much Mr Bryant was mistaken in some of his reasoning respecting the signification and derivation of particular words; and even if he had been more correct in these instances, the conclusions which he has deduced from his etymologies would by no means have been perfectly legitimate. Jablonsky seems to have exhibited one of the strongest examples of this dangerous abuse of learning, in which he has been followed not only by Mr Bryant, but by several other modern writers equally visionary, who have commonly been very imperfectly acquainted with the languages on which their conjectures depended, and have been still more deficient in that sort of common sense and correct feeling, confirmed by experience, which constitutes the most essential part of the qualifications of a critic, and the want of which can never be compensated by the most unwearied labour of a mere mechanical commentator.

3. Some remarks which had been made on particular passages of Mr Bryant's work led him to publish *A Indication of the Apamean Medal*; of the inscription NGR; and of another coin, in the *Archæologia*, vol. iv. art. 21,

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Bryant. 22, 23. 4. He deviated somewhat more widely from the usual objects of his researches, and apparently without any decided advantage over his adversary, in *An Address to Dr Priestley*, on the doctrine of philosophical necessity, 8vo, 1780. 5. He also published in the same year *Vindicie Flavianæ*, or a vindication of the testimony given by Josephus concerning our Saviour, 8vo.

6. Unfortunately for the credit of his critical discrimination in matters of old English literature, Mr Bryant was the author of *Observations on the Poems of Thomas Rowley*, in which the authenticity of these poems is ascertained, 2 vols. 12mo, 1781. If there could be any excuse for the commission of forgeries like that of Chatterton, it would be found in their serving as a valuable test of the degree of confidence which it is justifiable to place in the decrees of the most powerful critics respecting other questions of a more ambiguous nature.

7. Mr Bryant contributed to the publication of the *Duke of Marlborough's Collection of Gems*, the Latin explanations contained in the first volume, fol. 1783. 8. He inserted in the *Archæologia*, vii. 387, some *Collections on the Zingara or Gipsy Language*, which has been since sufficiently proved to be one of the many derivatives of the old Sanscrit. 9. Some time afterwards he published an anonymous *Treatise on the Authenticity of the Scriptures*, and the truth of the Christian religion, 1792. 10. This was succeeded by his *Observations upon the Plagues inflicted upon the Egyptians*, 8vo, 1794.

11. His opinions respecting the existence of the city of Troy, and the veracity of Homer as a historian, raised up against him a host of powerful adversaries; and in a question of this nature, upon which the decisions of mankind are so manifestly influenced by their sensibility to poetical beauty, and their early habits and attachments, a much more cautious attempt to innovate might easily have been unsuccessful. Whatever learning and talents may have been exhibited in this controversy, it will hardly be believed by an impartial judge, reasoning on the general probabilities of the case, that Homer intended the actions of his heroes, any more than their genealogies, to be historically correct; but, at the same time, it will readily be admitted that he was much more likely to take, for the scene of his poem, a town that had really existed, and, for its subject, a traditional report of a war which had actually been carried on, than to have invented a fabulous city and an imaginary warfare, without any historical foundation whatever. Mr Bryant published on this subject *Observations on a Treatise entitled Description of the Plain of Troy*, by Mr de Chevalier, 4to, 1795. 12. *A Dissertation concerning the War of Troy*, and the expedition of the Greeks, as described by Homer; showing that no such expedition was ever undertaken, and that no such city in Phrygia existed; 4to, 1796. 13. *Observations on the Vindication of Homer*, written by J. B. S. Morritt, Esq. 4to, 1799.

14. He had, in the mean time, not discontinued his theological studies, and had published an *Essay on The Sentiments of Philo Judæus* concerning the word of God, 8vo, 1797. His last work was a volume of *Dissertations on various Subjects in the Old Testament*, which had been nearly completed thirty years before. The subjects which had particularly attracted his attention were the histories of Balaam, Sampson, and Jonah; and besides Philo Judæus and Josephus, he had endeavoured to illustrate some controverted passages of Justin Martyr, as well as many other departments of religious and historical discussion.

The habits of Mr Bryant's maturer life were in general completely sedentary; although, in his youth, he had taken his full share in the cultivation of the manly exer-

cises common to Etonians, and had once the good fortune Bryennius to save, by his proficiency in swimming, the life of Dr Barnard, afterwards provost of Eton. His conversation was elegant and animated, his manners mild but firm; he exerted himself to please others, and was himself easily pleased. He was much courted in society, and his residence at Cypenham, near Windsor, was not unfrequently visited by persons of the highest possible rank. He never married. He died in his eighty-ninth year, the 14th November 1804, from the immediate consequence of an accidental blow. He left his library to King's College, having, however, previously made some valuable presents out of it to the king and to the Duke of Marlborough. He also bequeathed L.2000 to the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel, and L.1000 for the use of the superannuated collegers of Eton school. (*Gentleman's Magazine*, lxxiv. p. 1080, 1165; Nichols's *Literary Anecdotes*, iv. 667, 8vo, Lond. 1812; Aikin's *Biographical Dictionary*, x.) (L.L.)

BRYENNIUS, MARCUL, a Greek writer on music, is supposed to have flourished under the elder Palæologus, namely, about the year of Christ 1120. He wrote three books of harmonics, the first of which is a kind of commentary on Euclid, as the second and third are illustrative of Ptolemy. Meibomius had given the public expectations of a translation of this work, but not living to complete it, Dr Wallis undertook it; and it now forms part of the third volume of his works, published at Oxford in three volumes folio, 1699.

BRZEZANI, a circle in the Austrian province of Galicia, extending over 2316 square miles, or 1,482,240 acres, and comprehending four cities, fourteen towns, 317 villages, and 30,371 houses. The inhabitants in 1817 amounted to 182,300, of whom 11,320 were Jews; but they have much increased since that period. The district is woody, but the rest of the land is highly fertile, and produces good corn, hemp, flax, tobacco, and fruit. The capital is a city of the same name on the river Lipa, containing a Greek, an Armenian, and a Catholic church, with 4650 inhabitants. Long. 24. 35. 40. E. Lat. 49. 30. 25. N.

BUA, an island in the Adriatic Sea, belonging to the province of Spalatro, in the Austrian kingdom of Dalmatia. It is situated on the coast, opposite to Tru; is rich in wine, oil, and fruit; and contains six populous villages. There is in it a remarkable well of asphaltum. Long. 14. 10. E. Lat. 43. 8. N.

BUAT-NANCAY, LOUIS GABRIEL, COUNT DU, was born of an old family in Normandy on the 2d of March 1732. At an early age he entered into the order of Malta; and, by a fortunate accident, he became acquainted with the Chevalier Folard, author of the *Commentaries on Polybius*, who received him into his house and superintended his education. Folard had a nephew, who was minister for France at different German courts, and under whom Buat studied history and diplomacy. He was successively minister for France at Ratisbon and Dresden; but afterwards, becoming disgusted with this career, he retired from public life in the year 1776. He died at Nancy, in Berry, on the 18th of September 1787.

Buat was a man of some talents and considerable literary attainments, but possessing little knowledge of the world; which circumstance seems to have in a great measure disqualified him for public employment. He appears to have written with great facility; but his style is very unequal. His works are: 1. *Tableau du Gouvernement actuel de l'Empire d'Allemagne*, translated from the German of Schmauss, with notes historical and critical, Paris, 1755, 12mo. 2. *Les Origines, ou l'Ancien Gouvernement de la France, de l'Italie, et de l'Allemagne*, published at the Hague, 1757, 4 vols. 12mo. 3. *Histoire Ancienne des Peuples de l'Europe*, Paris, 1772, 12 vols. 12mo. This is the

Bubastis largest and perhaps the best work of Buat. 4. *Les Éléments de la Politique, ou Recherches sur les vrais Principes de l'Economie Sociale*, 1773, 6 vols. 8vo. 5. *Les Maximes du Gouvernement Monarchique, pour servir de suite aux Éléments*, 4 vols. 8vo. There is also ascribed to Buat a work entitled *Remarques d'un Français, ou Examen impartial du livre de M. Necker sur les Finances*, Geneva, 1785, 8vo. In his youth he had composed a tragedy, entitled *Charlemagne, ou le Triomphe des Loix*, published at Vienna, 1764, 8vo. He likewise contributed several articles to the journals of his time, on different points of history, literature, and political economy; in particular, some excellent observations on the character of Xenophon, inserted in the fourth volume of the *Varités Littéraires*. (See *Biographie Universelle*.)

BUBASTIS, in the Egyptian mythology, one of the names of Isis or the moon. The Egyptians bestowed different names on the sun, either to characterize his effects or his relations with respect to the earth; and they followed the same method respecting the moon. Chæmon, a sacred writer of Egypt, leaves no doubt on this subject. "Every thing which is published of Osiris and Isis, all the sacerdotal fables, allude only to the phases of the moon and the course of the sun, Bubastis was one of the principal attributes of Isis. Theology having personified her, formed of her a divinity, in whose honour a city of that name was built, as described by Herodotus, and where the people collected from all parts of Egypt at a certain period of the year. The symbol of this deity was a cat, which the priests fed with sacred food; and when it died they embalmed its body, and carried it in pomp to the tomb prepared for it. The ancients have explained this worship variously. The Greeks pretend that when Typhon declared war against the gods, Apollo transformed himself into a vulture, Mercury into an ibis, and Bubastis into a cat, and that the veneration of the people for the latter animal took its rise from that fable; but they ascribe their own ideas to the Egyptians, who thought very differently. However that may be, the cat was greatly honoured in Egypt; and a Roman soldier having imprudently killed one, was immediately put to death by the populace. In the language of the priests, Bubastis was deemed the daughter of Isis, and even represented her in certain circumstances. It is for this reason that the Greeks, who honoured the moon by the name of Diana, bestowed it also on this Egyptian divinity. Bubastis, says Herodotus, is called Diana by the Greeks. The Egyptians attributed to her the virtue of assisting pregnant women; while the Greeks and Latins, disciples of the Egyptians, ascribed the same power to Diana.

BUC, GEORGE, a learned English antiquary, flourished in the beginning of the seventeenth century. In the reign of King James I. he was made one of the gentlemen of his majesty's privy chamber, and knighted; he was also constituted master of the revels. What he mostly distinguished himself by was his writing the History of the Reign of Richard III.; in which he takes great pains to wipe off the bloody stains which have tarnished the character of that prince, and represents his person and actions in a much less odious light than any other historian has done. He also wrote, a Treatise of the Art of Revels; and a work entitled the Third Universitie of England.

BUCANEER, one who dries and smokes flesh or fish after the manner of the Indians. The name was particularly given to the first French settlers on the island of St Domingo or Hayti, whose sole employment consisted in hunting bulls or wild boars, in order to sell their hides and flesh. The name has also been applied to those famous piratical adventurers, chiefly English and French, who joined together to commit depredations on the Spa-

niards of America. Of both these we shall give an account.

1. *The Buccaneers of St Domingo*.—The Spaniards had not long been in possession of the West Indies and of the continent of America, when other nations, especially the English and French, began to seek establishments there. But though the Spaniards were unable to people such extensive countries themselves, they were resolved that no others should do it for them, and therefore waged a cruel war on all those of any other nation who attempted to settle in any of the Antilles or Caribbee Islands. The French, however, were at last lucky enough to acquire some footing in the island of St Christophers; but by the time they began to subside into a regular form of government, the Spaniards found means to dislodge them. Upon this the wretched fugitives, considering at how great a distance they were from their mother country, and how near to the island of Hispaniola or St Domingo, the northern parts of which were then uninhabited, and full of swine and black cattle, immediately resolved to take possession of that country, in conjunction with several other adventurers of their own and the English nation; especially as the Dutch, who now began to appear in these seas, promised to supply them plentifully with all kinds of necessaries they might require, in exchange for the hides and tallow they should procure by hunting.

These new settlers obtained the name of *buccaneers*, from their custom of bucaning their beef and pork in order to keep it for sale or for their own consumption. But some of them soon grew tired of this new way of life, and took to planting; whilst many more chose to turn pirates, trusting to find among those who remained on shore a quick sale for all the plunder they could make at sea. This new body of adventurers were called *frebooters*, from their making free prey or booty of whatever came in their way.

The colony now began to thrive at a great rate, by the cheap and easy manner in which the frebooters acquired the greatest riches, and the profusion with which they distributed them amongst their old companions, the buccaneers and planters, for the merest trifles. This brought numbers of settlers from France in quality of indentured servants, though they toiled rather like slaves than servants during the three years for which they generally bound themselves. One of these men presuming to represent to his master, who always fixed upon a Sunday for sending him with skins to the port, that God had forbidden such a practice when he had declared that "six days shalt thou labour, and on the seventh day shalt thou rest," the brutish buccaneer replied, "And I say to thee, six days shalt thou kill bulls, and strip them of their skins, and on the seventh day shalt thou carry their hides to the sea shores;" and this command was followed by blows. Thus the colony consisted of four classes; buccaneers, frebooters, planters, and indentured servants who generally remained with the buccaneers or planters. And these four orders composed what they now began to call the *body of adventurers*, who lived together in perfect harmony, under a kind of democracy; every freeman having a despotic authority over his own family, and every captain being sovereign in his ship, though liable to be discarded at the discretion of the crew.

The planters had settled chiefly in the little island of Tortuga, on the northern coast of Hispaniola; but soon afterwards some of them having gone to the great island to hunt with the buccaneers, the rest were surprised by the Spaniards; and all, even those who had surrendered at discretion in hopes of mercy, were put to the sword or hanged. The next care of the Spaniards was to rid the great island of the buccaneers; and for this purpose they assembled a body of five hundred lance-men, who, by

Bucaneer, their seldom going fewer than fifty in a company, obtained from their enemies the name of the *Egypas*. But before detailing the particulars of this attack we shall endeavour to give some account of the manners and customs of the people whom it was proposed to exterminate.

The bucanneers lived in little huts built on some spots of cleared ground, just large enough to dry their skins on, and contain their buncanning houses. These spots they called *boucanes*, and the huts they dwelt in *ajoupas*, a word which they borrowed from the Spaniards, and the Spaniards from the natives. Though these ajoupas lay open on all sides, they were very agreeable to the hardy inhabitants, in a climate where wind and air are so very desirable things. As the bucanneers had neither wives nor children, they associated by pairs, and mutually rendered each other all the services a master could reasonably expect from a servant, living together in so perfect a community, that the survivor always succeeded his deceased partner. This kind of union or fellowship they called *venetadoter* (insinuating), and each other *venetot* (sailor), whence is derived the custom of giving, at least in some parts of the French Antilles, the name *matelotage* (sailorage) to any kind of society formed by private persons for their mutual advantage. They behaved to each other with the greatest justice and openness of heart; it was considered as a crime to keep any thing under lock and key; but, on the other hand, the least pilfering was unpardonable, and punished with expulsion from the community. And, indeed, there could be no great temptation to steal, seeing it was reckoned a point of honour never to refuse a neighbour what he wanted; and where there was so little property, it was impossible there should be many disputes. If any such happened, the common friends of the parties at variance interposed, and soon put an end to the difference.

As to laws, the bucanneers acknowledged none but an old jumble of conventions made between themselves, which, however, they regarded as the sovereign rule. They silenced all objections by coolly answering, that it was not the custom of the coast; and grounded their right of acting in this manner on their baptism under the tropic, which freed them, in their opinion, from all obligations antecedent to that marine ceremony. The governor of Tortuga, when that island was again settled, though appointed by the French court, had very little authority over them; and they contented themselves with rendering him from time to time some slight homage. They had in a manner entirely shaken off the yoke of religion, and thought they did a great deal in not wholly forgetting the God of their fathers. We are surprised to meet with nations among whom it is a difficult matter to discover any trace of a religious worship; and yet it is certain, that had the bucanneers of St Domingo been perpetuated on the same footing on which they subsisted at the time we are speaking of, the third or fourth generation of them would have possessed as little religion as the Caffres and Hotentots of Africa, or the Cannibals of the South Sea Islands.

They even laid aside their surnames, and assumed nicknames or martial names, most of which afterwards continued in their families. Many, however, on their marrying, which seldom happened till they turned planters, took care to have their real surnames inserted in the French contract; and this practice gave occasion to a proverb, which long remained current in the French Antilles, that a man is not to be known till he takes a wife.

Their dress consisted of a filthy greasy shirt, dyed with the blood of the animals they killed; a pair of trousers still more nasty; a thong of leather by way of belt, to which they hung a case containing some Dutch knives, and a kind of short sabre called *manchette*; a hat without

any brim, except a little flap in the front; and shoes of **Bucaneer** hogskin, all of a piece. Their guns were four feet and a half in the barrel, and of a calibre sufficient to admit balls of an ounce. Every man had his contract servants, more or fewer according to his abilities; besides a pack of twenty or thirty dogs, among which there was always a couple of beagles. Their chief employment at first was ox-hunting; and if at any time they chased a wild hog, it was rather for pastime, or to make provision for a feast, than for any other advantage. But in process of time some of them betook themselves entirely to the hunting of hogs, whose flesh they buncanned in the following manner: first, they cut the flesh into long pieces, an inch and a half thick, and sprinkled them with salt, which they rubbed off after twenty-four hours; then they dried these pieces in stoves, over a fire made of the skin and bones of the beast, till they grew as hard as a board, and assumed a deep brown colour. Pork prepared in this manner might be kept in casks a twelvemonth and longer; and when steeped in cold while in lukewarm water, it became plump and rosy, yielding, either broiled, boiled, or otherwise dressed, a grateful smell, sufficient to tempt the most languid appetite and please the most delicate palate.

In hunting, they set out at day-break, preceded by the beagles, and followed by their servants with the rest of the dogs; and as they made it a point never to baulk their beagles, they were often led by them over the most frightful precipices, and through places which any other mortal would have deemed absolutely impassable. As soon as the beagles had roused the game, the rest of the dogs struck up and surrounded the beast, stopping it, and keeping a constant barking till the bucaneer could get near enough to shoot it, in doing which he commonly aimed at the pit of the breast; and when the beast fell he hamstrung it, to prevent its rising again. But it has sometimes happened that the creature, not wounded enough to tumble to the ground, has run furiously at his pursuer, and ripped him open. In general, however, the bucaneer seldom missed his aim; and when he did, he was nimble enough to get up the tree behind which he usually had the precaution to place himself; whilst some of them have been seen to overtake the beast in chase, and hamstring it without any further ceremony.

As soon as the prey was half skinned, the master cut out a large bone, and sucked the marrow for breakfast; leaving the rest to his servants, one of whom always remained behind to finish the skinning, and bring the skin, with a choice piece of meat for the hunters' dinner. They then continued the chase till they had killed as many beasts as there were heads in the company. The master was the last to return to the boucan, loaded like the rest with a skin and a piece of meat. Here the bucanneers found their tables ready; for every one had his separate table, which was the first thing, any way fit for the purpose, that came in their way, a stone, the trunk of a tree, and the like. No table-cloth, no napkin, no bread or wine, graced their board; not even potatoes or bananas, unless they found them ready to their hand. When this did not happen, the fat and lean of the game, taken alternately, served to supply the place. A little pimento, and the juice of an orange, formed their only sauce; contentment, peace of mind, a good appetite, and abundance of mirth, made every thing agreeable. Thus they lived and spent their time, till they had completed the number of hides for which they had agreed with the merchants; which done, they carried them to Tortuga, or some port of the great island.

As the bucanneers used much exercise, and fed only on flesh, they generally enjoyed a good state of health. They were indeed subject to fevers; but these were either such

Bucaneer. as lasted only a day, and left no sensible impression the day following, or slight slow fevers, which did not hinder them from action, and were of course so little regarded, that it was usual with the patient, when asked how he did, to answer, "Very well; nothing ails me but the fever." It was impossible, however, that they should not suffer considerably by such fatigues, under a climate to the heat of which few of them had been early enough inured. Hence the most considerate among them, after they had got money enough for that purpose, turned planters;—the rest soon spent the fruits of their labour in taverns and tippling-houses; and many had so habituated themselves to this kind of life, as to become incapable of any other. Nay, there have been instances of young men, who having early embarked through necessity in this painful and dangerous profession, persisted in it afterwards, merely through a principle of libertinism, rather than return to France and take possession of the most plentiful fortunes.

Such were the bucanears of St Domingo, and such was their situation when the Spaniards undertook to extirpate them. And at first the assailants met with great success; for as the bucanears hunted separately, every one attended by his servants, they were easily surprised. Hence the Spaniards killed numbers, and took many more, whom they condemned to a most cruel slavery. But whenever the bucanears had time to put themselves into a state of defence, they fought like lions, to avoid falling into the hands of a nation from whom they were sure to receive no quarter; and by this means they often escaped; nay, there are many instances of single men fighting their way through numbers. These dangers, however, and the success of the Spaniards in discovering their bucanes, where they used to surprise and cut the throats of the bucanears and their servants in their sleep, engaged them to cohabit in greater numbers, and even to act offensively, in hopes that by so doing they might at last induce the Spaniards to let them live in peace. But the fury with which they behaved whenever they met any Spaniards served only to make their enemies more intent on their destruction; and assistance coming to both parties, the whole island was turned into a slaughter-house, and so much blood spilt on both sides, that many places, on account of the carnage of which they had been the scenes, were described as the hill of the massacre, the plain of the massacre, the valley of the massacre, and so forth.

At length the Spaniards grew tired of this mode of proceeding, and had recourse to their old method of surprise, which, against enemies of more courage than vigilance, was likely to succeed better. This placed the bucanears under a necessity of never hunting except in large parties, and fixing their bucanes in the little islands on the coast, where they retired every evening; an expedient which succeeded very well, and the bucanes, by being more fixed, soon acquired the air and consistency of little towns. When the bucanears had once established themselves, as here related, each bucan sent out scouts every morning to the highest part of the island, in order to reconnoitre the coast, and see if any Spanish parties were abroad. If no enemy appeared, they appointed a place and hour of rendezvous in the evening, and were never absent if not killed or made prisoners. When, therefore, any one of the company was missing, it was not lawful for the rest to hunt again till they had got intelligence of him if taken, or avenged his death if killed. Things continued in this situation for a long time, till the Spaniards made a general hunt over the whole island, and, by destroying the game, forced the bucanears to betake themselves to another course of life. Some of them turned planters, and thus increased the French settlements on the coast, or formed others; whilst the rest, not relishing so confined and re-

gular a life, entered among the freebooters, who therefore became a very powerful body. France, which had hitherto disclaimed for her subjects these ruffians, whose successes were only temporary, acknowledged them, however, as soon as they formed themselves into settlements, and took proper measures for their government and defence.

II. Bucaneers, the Pirates.—Before the English had effected any settlement in Jamaica, and the French in St Domingo, some pirates of both nations, who were afterwards so much distinguished by the name of *Bucaneers*, had driven the Spaniards out of the small island of Tortuga; and, fortifying themselves there, had with an amazing intrepidity made excursions against the common enemy. They formed themselves into small companies consisting of fifty, a hundred, or a hundred and fifteen men each. A boat, of greater or smaller size, was their only armament. Here they were exposed night and day to all the inclemencies of the weather, having scarce room enough to lie down. A love of absolute independence rendered them averse from those mutual restraints which the members of society impose upon themselves for the common good; and as the authority they had conferred on their captain was confined to his giving orders in battle, they lived in the greatest confusion. Like the savages, having no apprehension of want, nor any care to preserve the necessaries of life, they were constantly exposed to the severest extremities of hunger and thirst; but deriving from their very distresses a courage superior to every danger, the sight of a ship transported them to a degree bordering on frenzy. They never deliberated on the attack, but it was their custom to board the ship as soon as possible. The smallness of their vessels, and the skill they showed in the management of them, screened them from the fire of the larger class of ships; and they presented only the fore part of their little vessels filled with fusileers, who fired at the port-holes with so much exactness that it entirely confounded the most experienced gunners. As soon as they threw out the grappling, the largest vessels seldom escaped them.

In cases of extreme necessity they attacked the people of every nation, but fell upon the Spaniards at all times. They thought that the cruelties which the latter had exercised on the inhabitants of the new world justified the implacable aversion they had sworn against them. But this was heightened by the mortification they felt in seeing themselves debarred from the privileges of hunting and fishing, which they considered as natural rights. Their principles of justice and religion in no degree interfered with their predatory habits; for whenever they embarked on any expedition, they used to pray to heaven for the success of it; and they never came back from plundering, without returning thanks to God for their victory.

The ships which sailed from Europe to America seldom tempted their avidity, since the merchandise which these contained could not have been easily sold, nor indeed very profitable to those barbarians. They always waited for them on their return, when they were certain they were laden with gold, silver, jewels, and all the valuable productions of the new world. If they met with a single ship they never failed to attack her. As to the fleets, they followed them till they sailed out of the Gulf of Bahama; and as soon as any one of the vessels was separated by accident from the rest, it was taken. The Spaniards, who trembled at the approach of the bucanears, whom they called devils, immediately surrendered. Quarter was granted if the cargo proved to be a rich one; if not, all the prisoners were thrown into the sea.

The bucanears, when they had got a considerable booty, at first held their rendezvous at the island of Tortuga, in

Bucaneer. order to divide the spoil; but afterwards the French went to St Domingo, and the English to Jamaica. Each person, holding up his hand, solemnly protested that he had secreted nothing of what he had taken. If any one among them was convicted of perjury, a case which seldom happened, he was left, as soon as an opportunity offered, upon some desert island, as a traitor unworthy to live in society. Such of their number as had been maimed in any of their expeditions were first provided for. If they had lost a hand, an arm, a leg, or a foot, they received twenty-six pounds; whilst an eye, a finger, or a toe, lost in fight, was valued only at half this sum. The wounded were allowed half a crown per day for two months, to enable them to have their wounds taken care of; and if they had not money enough to answer these several demands, the whole company were obliged to engage in some fresh expedition, and to continue it till they had acquired a sufficient stock to enable them to satisfy these honourable contracts. The remainder of the booty was then divided into as many shares as there were bucaners. The commander could only lay claim to a single share; but they complimented him with two or three, in proportion as he had acquitted himself to their satisfaction. Favour never had any influence in the division of the booty, for every share was determined by lot. The most rigid justice was extended even to the dead. Their share was given to the man who was known to be their companion when alive, and therefore accounted their heir. If the person who had been killed had no intimate, his portion was sent to his relations when they were known; and if there were no friends or relations, it was distributed in charity to the poor, and to the churches, which consented to offer up prayers for the person in whose name these benefactions were given.

When these duties had been complied with, they then indulged themselves in all kinds of profusion. Unbounded licentiousness in gaming, wine, women, and every kind of debauchery, was carried to the utmost pitch of excess, and was stopt only by the want which such profusion brought on. Those who had been enriched with several millions were in an instant totally ruined, and rendered destitute of clothes and provisions. They returned to sea; and the new supplies which they acquired were soon lavished in the same manner as before.

The Spanish colonies, flattering themselves with the hope of seeing an end to their miseries, and reduced almost to despair at finding themselves a perpetual prey to these ruffians, grew weary of navigation. They gave up all the power, conveniences, and fortune, which their connections procured them, and formed themselves into so many distinct and separate associations. They were sensible of the great inconvenience arising from such a conduct, and avowed it; but the dread of falling into the hands of rapacious and savage men had greater influence over them than the dictates of honour, interest, and policy. This gave rise to that spirit of inactivity which continues to the present time, notwithstanding the agitating events of which that quarter of the world has since been the theatre.

The despondency thus produced served only to increase the boldness of the bucaners. As yet they had only appeared in the Spanish settlements in order to carry off provisions when in want of them. But they no sooner found their captures begin to diminish, than they determined to recover by land what they had lost at sea. The richest and most populous countries of the continent were plundered and laid waste. The culture of lands was as much neglected as navigation; and the Spaniards dared no more appear in their public roads, than sail in the latitudes which belonged to them.

Among the bucaners who signalized themselves in this

new species of freebooting, Montbar, a gentleman of Languedoc, particularly distinguished himself. Having by chance, in his infancy, met with a circumstantial account of the cruelties practiced in the conquest of the New World, he conceived an aversion, which he carried to a degree of frenzy, against that nation which had committed such enormities. The enthusiasm which this spirit of humanity worked him up to merged in a ferocity still more cruel than that of the religious fanaticism to which so many victims had been sacrificed. The manes of these unhappy sufferers seemed to rouse him, and call for vengeance. He had heard some account of the bucaners, who were said to be the most inveterate enemies to the Spanish name; and he therefore embarked, with some others, on board a ship in order to join them.

In the passage they met with a Spanish vessel, attacked, and, as was usual in those times, immediately boarded it. Montbar, with a sabre in his hand, fell upon the enemy, broke through them, and, hurrying twice from one end of the ship to the other, levelled every thing that opposed him. When he had compelled the enemy to surrender, leaving to his companions the happiness of dividing so rich a booty, he contented himself with the savage pleasure of contemplating the dead bodies of the Spaniards, against whom he had sworn a constant and deadly hatred.

Fresh opportunities soon occurred which enabled him to exercise this spirit of revenge without extinguishing it. The ship which conveyed him arrived on the coast of St Domingo, where the bucaners on land immediately applied to barter provisions for brandy. As the articles they offered were of little value, they alleged in excuse that their enemies had overrun the country, laid waste their settlements, and carried off all their property. "Why," replied Montbar, "do you tamely suffer such insults?" "Neither do we," answered they; "the Spaniards have experienced what kind of men we are, and have therefore taken advantage of the time when we were engaged in hunting; but we are going to join some of our companions who have been still worse treated than we, and then we shall have warm work." "If you approve of it," answered Montbar, "I will lead you, not as your commander, but as the foremost to expose myself to danger." The bucaners perceiving from his appearance that he was the very man they wanted, cheerfully accepted his offer; and the same day they overtook the enemy, when Montbar attacked them with an impetuosity that astonished the bravest, and scarce one Spaniard escaped the effects of his fury. The remaining part of his life was equally distinguished as this day. The Spaniards suffered so much from him, both by sea and land, that he acquired the name of the *Exterminator*.

His savage disposition, as well as that of the other bucaners who attended him, having obliged the Spaniards to confine themselves within their settlements, the freebooters resolved to attack them there. This new method of carrying on the war required superior forces; and their associations in consequence became more numerous. The first considerable one was that formed by L'Olonois, who derived his name from the sands of Olone, the place of his birth. From the abject state of a bondsman, he had gradually raised himself to the command of two canoes, with twenty-two men; and with these he was so successful as to take a Spanish frigate on the coast of Cuba. He then repaired to Port-au-Prince, in which were four ships, fitted out purposely to sail in pursuit of him; but he took them, and threw all the crews into the sea except one man, whom he saved in order to send him with a letter to the governor of the Havannah, acquainting him with what he had done, and assuring him that he would treat in the same manner all the Spaniards who should fall into his hands, not excepting the governor himself if he were for-

Bucaneer. fortunate enough to take him. After this expedition he ran his canoes and prize ships aground, and sailed with his frigate only to the island of Tortuga.

At Tortuga he met with Michael de Basco, who had distinguished himself by taking, even under the cannon of Porto Bello, a Spanish ship, estimated at £218,500, and by other actions equally brave and daring. These two gave out that they were going to embark together on an expedition equally glorious and profitable; and in consequence they soon collected together four hundred and forty men. This body of men, the most numerous which the bucaners had yet been able to muster, sailed to the Bay of Venezuela, which runs up into the country for the space of about fifty leagues. The fort which was built at the entrance for its defence was taken; the cannon were nailed up; and the whole garrison, consisting of two hundred and fifty men, were put to death. They then re-embarked and came to Maracaybo, built on the western coast of the lake of the same name, at the distance of ten leagues from its mouth. This city, which had become flourishing and rich by its trade in skins, tobacco, and cocoa, was deserted; and the inhabitants had retired with their effects to the other side of the bay. If the bucaners had not lost a fortnight in riot and debauchery, they would have found at Gibraltar, near the extremity of the lake, every thing which the inhabitants had secreted, to secure it from being plundered. On the contrary they met with fortifications lately erected, which they had the bootless satisfaction of making themselves masters of at the expense of a great deal of blood; for the inhabitants had already removed to a distance the most valuable part of their property. Exasperated at this disappointment, they set fire to Gibraltar; and Maracaybo would have shared the same fate had it not been ransomred. Besides the sum which they received for its ransom, they carried off all the crosses, pictures, and bells of the churches; intending, as they said, to build a chapel in the island of Tortuga, and to consecrate this part of their spoils to sacred purposes. Such was the religion of these barbarous people, who could make no other offering to heaven than that which arose from their robberies and plunder.

But while they were idly dissipating the spoils which they had made on the coast of Venezuela, Morgan, the most renowned of the English bucaners, sailed from Jamaica to attack Porto Bello. His plan of operations was so well contrived that he surprised and took the city without opposition. The conquest of Panama was an object of much greater importance. To secure this Morgan thought it necessary to sail in the latitudes of Costa-Rica, in order to procure some guides in the island of St Catharines, where the Spaniards confined their malefactors. This place was so strongly fortified that it might to have held out for ten years against a considerable army. But notwithstanding this, the governor, on the first appearance of the pirates, sent privately to concert measures how he might surrender himself without incurring the imputation of cowardice; and the result of this consultation was, that Morgan in the night-time was to attack a fort at some distance, while the governor was to sally out of the citadel to defend a post of so much consequence, and that the assailants should then attack him in the rear, and take him prisoner, which would occasion an immediate surrender of the place. It was agreed that a smart firing should be kept up on both sides, without doing mischief to either. This farce was admirably carried on. The Spaniards, without being exposed to any danger, appeared to have done their duty; and the bucaners, after having totally demolished the fortification, and put on board their vessels a prodigious quantity of warlike ammunition, which they found at St Catharines, steered their course towards the river Chagre, the only

channel whereby they could arrive at the place which was Bucaneer. the object of their wishes.

At the entrance of this considerable river a fort had been built upon a steep rock, which the waves of the sea constantly beat against. This bulwark, naturally difficult of access, was defended by an officer whose extraordinary abilities were equal to his courage, and by a garrison which was in all respects worthy of such a commander. Here the bucaners, for the first time, met with a resistance which could only be equalled by their perseverance; and it was a doubtful point whether they should succeed or be obliged to raise the siege, when a lucky accident happened which proved favourable to their glory and their fortune. The commander was killed, and the fort accidentally took fire; upon which the besiegers, taking advantage of this double calamity, made themselves masters of the place.

Morgan left his vessels at anchor, with a sufficient number of men to guard them, and sailed up the river in his sloops for thirty-three miles, till he came to Cruces, where it ceases to be navigable; and he then proceeded by land to Panama, which was only five leagues distant. Upon a large and extensive plain which stretched out before the city, he met with a considerable body of troops, whom he put to flight with the greatest ease, and entered the city, which was now abandoned. Here were found prodigious treasures concealed in the walls and caves; some valuable commodities were also taken in the boats which were left aground at low water; and in the neighbouring forests were likewise found several rich deposits. Having burnt the city, they set sail with a great number of prisoners, who were ransomed a few days afterwards, and arrived at the mouth of the Chagre with a prodigious booty.

In 1693 an expedition of the greatest consequence was formed by Van Horn, a native of Ostend, but who had served all his life among the French. His own intrepidity prevented his tolerating the least signs of cowardice amongst those who associated with him. In the heat of an engagement he went about his ship, observed his men in succession, and immediately killed those who shrunk at the sudden report of a pistol, gun, or cannon. This extraordinary discipline rendered him the terror of the coward and the idol of the brave. In other respects he readily shared with the men of spirit and bravery the immense riches which were acquired in the course of his marauding expeditions. When he went upon such expeditions, he generally sailed in his frigate, which was his own property. But his designs requiring greater numbers to carry them into execution, he called to his assistance Grammont, Godfrey, and Jonqué, three Frenchmen distinguished by their exploits, and Lawrence de Graff, a Dutchman, who had signalized himself still more than they. Twelve hundred bucaners joined themselves to these commanders, and sailed in six vessels for Vera Cruz.

The darkness of the night favoured their landing, which was effected about three leagues from the place, where they arrived without being discovered. The governor, the fort, the barracks, and the posts of the greatest consequence, every thing, in short, which could occasion any resistance, were taken by the break of day. All the citizens, men, women, and children, were shut up in the churches, whither they had fled for shelter. At the door of each church were placed barrels of gunpowder to blow up the building; and a bucaner, with a lighted match, was to set fire to it upon the least appearance of an insurrection.

While the city was kept in this state of terror, it was easily pillaged; and after the bucaners had carried off whatever was most valuable, they made a proposal to the citizens who were kept prisoners in the churches to ransom their lives and liberties by a contribution of £437,500. This unfortunate people, who had neither eaten nor drunken for

Bucaneer. three days, cheerfully accepted the terms which were offered them. Half of the money was paid the same day, and the other part was expected from the interior of the country, when there appeared on an eminence a considerable body of troops advancing, and near the port a fleet of seventeen ships from Europe. At the sight of this armament, the bucaneeers, without any marks of surprise, retired quietly, with fifteen hundred slaves they had seized, as a trifling indemnification for the rest of the money they expected, the settling of which they referred to a more favourable opportunity. Their retreat was equally daring. They boldly sailed through the midst of the Spanish fleet, which let them pass without firing a single gun, and, in fact, seemed afraid of being attacked and beaten. The Spaniards would not probably have escaped so easily, if the vessels of the pirates had not been laden with silver, or if the Spanish fleet had been freighted with any other effects but such merchandise as was little valued by these daring freebooters.

A year had scarcely elapsed since their return from Mexico, when, on a sudden, they were all seized with a passion for going to plunder Peru. It is probable that the hopes of finding greater treasures upon a sea little frequented, than on one long exposed to piracies of this kind, was the cause of this expedition; but it is somewhat remarkable, that both the English and French, and the associations of these two nations, had projected this plan at the same time, without any communication, intercourse, or design of acting in concert with each other. About four thousand men were employed in this expedition. Some of them proceeded by Terra Firma, others by the Straits of Magelhaens, to the place which formed the object of their wishes; and if the intrepidity of these barbarians had been directed, under the influence of a skilful commander, to a single end, it is certain that they would have deprived the Spaniards of this important colony. But their natural character presented an invincible obstacle to so rare a union; for they always formed themselves into several distinct bodies, sometimes even so few in number as ten or twelve, who acted together, or separated, as whim or caprice dictated. Grogner, Lecuyer, Picard, and Le Sage, were the most distinguished officers among the French; David Samms, Peter Wilner, and Towley, among the English.

Such of these adventurers as had got into the South Sea by the Straits of Darien seized upon the first vessel which they found upon the coast; and their associates, who had sailed in their own vessels, were not much better provided. Weak, however, as they were, they several times beat the squadrons which were fitted out against them. But these victories were prejudicial to them, by interrupting their navigation; and when there were no more ships to be taken, they were continually obliged to make descents upon the coasts to get provisions, or to go by land in order to plunder those cities where the booty had been secured. They successively attacked Seppa, Puebla-Nuevo, Leon, Realejo, Puebla-Viejo, Chiriquita, Lesparso, Granada, Villia, Nicoy, Teocanteca, Mucmeluna, Chilotea, New Segoria, and Guayquil, the most considerable of all these places.

Many of these places were taken by surprise, and most of them deserted by their inhabitants, who fled at the sight of the enemy. As soon as the bucaneeers took a town, it was directly set on fire, unless a sum proportioned to its value was paid to save it. The prisoners taken in battle were massacred without mercy if they were not ransomed by the governor or some of the inhabitants; while gold, pearls, or precious stones, were the only things accepted of for the payment of their ransom. Silver being too common, and too weighty for its current value, would have been troublesome to them. The chances of fortune, which

seldom leave guilt unpunished, or adversity without a compensation for its suffering, atoned for the crimes committed in the conquest of the New World; and the Indians were amply avenged on the Spaniards.

While such piracies were being committed on the Southern Ocean, the Northern was threatened with the same by Grammont. He was a native of Paris, by birth a gentleman, and had distinguished himself in a military capacity in Europe; but his passion for wine, gaming, and women, had obliged him to join the pirates. Nevertheless he was affable, polite, generous, and eloquent; endowed with a sound judgment, and a person of approved valour; qualities which soon made him be considered as the chief of the French bucaneeers. As soon as it was known that he had taken up arms, he was immediately joined by a number of brave men. The governor of St Domingo, who had at length prevailed upon his master to approve of the project, equally wise and just, of fixing the pirates in some place, and inducing them to become cultivators, was desirous of preventing the concerted expedition, and forbade it in the king's name. But Grammont, who had a greater share of sense than his associates, was not on that account inclined to comply, and sternly replied, "How can Louis disapprove of a design he is unacquainted with, and which has been planned only a few days ago?" This answer highly pleased all the bucaneeers, who directly embarked in 1685 to attack Campeachy.

They landed without opposition. But at some distance from the coast they were attacked by eight hundred Spaniards, who were beaten and pursued to the town, which both parties entered pell-mell together. The cannon they found there were immediately levelled against the citadel; but as these had very little effect, they were contriving some stratagem to enable them to become masters of the place, when intelligence was brought that it had been abandoned. There remained in it only a gunner, an Englishman, and an officer of signal courage, who chose rather to expose himself to the greatest extremities than basely to fly from the place with the rest. The commander of the bucaneeers received him with marks of distinction, generously released him, gave him up all his effects, and, besides, complimented him with some valuable presents; such influence have courage and fidelity even on the minds of those who systematically violate all the rights of society.

The conquerors of Campeachy spent two months in searching the environs of the city to the extent of twelve or fifteen leagues, and in carrying off every thing which the inhabitants in their flight thought they had preserved. When all the treasure they had collected from every quarter was deposited in the ships, a proposal was made to the governor of the province, who still kept the field with nine hundred men, to ransom his capital city. His refusal determined them to burn it, and demolish the citadel. The French, on the festival of St Louis, were celebrating the anniversary of their king; and in the transports of their patriotism, intoxication, and national love of their prince, they burnt to the value of a million of logwood; a part, and a very considerable one too, of the spoil which they had made. After this singular and extravagant instance of folly, of which Frenchmen only would boast, they returned to St Domingo.

In 1697 twelve hundred bucaneeers were induced to join a squadron of seven ships which sailed from Europe under the command of one Pointis, to attack the famous city of Carthagena. This was the most difficult enterprise which could be attempted in the New World. The situation of the port, the strength of the place, and the badness of the climate, were so many obstacles which would have seemed insurmountable to any but such men as the bucaneeers. But every obstacle yielded to their valour and

Bucarest good fortune; the city was taken, and booty gained to the amount of L.1,750,000. Their rapacious commander, however, deprived them of the advantages resulting from their success. He scrupled not, as soon as they set sail, to offer L.5250 for the share of those who had been the chief instruments in procuring him so considerable a spoil.

The bucaners, exasperated at this treatment, resolved immediately to board the vessel called the Sceptre, where Pointis himself was, and which at that time was too far distant from the rest of the ships to expect to be assisted by them. And this avaricious commander was upon the point of being massacred, when one of the malcontents cried out, "Brethren, why should we attack this rascal? He has carried off nothing that belongs to us. He has left our share at Carthage, and there we must go to recover it." This proposal was received with general applause. A savage joy at once succeeded the gloomy melancholy which had seized them; and without further deliberation all their ships sailed towards Carthage.

As soon as they had entered the city without meeting with any resistance, they shut up all the men in the great church, and exacted payment of L.218,750, the amount of their share of booty which they had been defrauded of, promising to retreat immediately upon compliance with their demand, but threatening the most dreadful vengeance in case of refusal. Upon this the most venerable priest in the city mounted the pulpit, and made use of the influence which his character, his authority, and his eloquence gave to him, to persuade his hearers to yield up without reserve all the gold, silver, and jewels in their possession. But the collection made after the sermon not furnishing the sum required, the city was ordered to be plundered.

At length, after amassing all they could, these adventurers set sail, when unfortunately they met with a fleet of Dutch and English ships, then in alliance with Spain. Several of the pirates were either taken or sunk, with the cargoes they had on board; and the rest escaped to St Domingo.

Such was the last memorable event in the history of the bucaners. The separation of the English and French, when the war on account of the Prince of Orange divided the two nations; the success of the means employed to promote the cultivation of land among their colonies, by the assistance of these enterprising men; the prudence evinced in selecting the most distinguished among them, and intrusting them with civil and military employments; and the protection afforded to the Spanish settlements, which till then had been a general object of plunder; all these circumstances, and various others, besides the impossibility of supplying the place of these remarkable men, who were continually dropping off, concurred to put an end to a society as extraordinary as any that ever existed. Without any regular system, without laws, without subordination, and even without any fixed revenue, they became the astonishment of the age in which they lived, as they will be also of posterity.

BUCAREST, or **BUCHAREST**, a city in the district of Ilfov, and the capital of the province of Wallachia. It is situated on a fine and extensive plain, upon the banks of the Dumbowitza, which falls into the Danube above the fortress of Silistria. It is the seat of a Greek archbishop, and contains sixty churches of that communion, and also twenty monasteries. It is an ill-built town, the streets being paved with trees, and excessively filthy. There is a Greek college, with twelve professors and two hundred and sixty students. There are some manufactures, and considerable domestic trade. The inhabitants are stated to be between 50,000 and 60,000. Long. 27. 2. 10. E. Lat. 44. 28. 45. N.

BUCCARI, a city in the Austrian province of Trieste,

and circle of Montano. It is a well-frequented port for small vessels, being situated on a bay of the same name in the Gulf of Quarnaro. It has considerable traffic in wine and in wood, and a tunny fishery. The inhabitants are about 3000. Long. 14. 36. 12. E. Lat. 45. 18. N.

BUCCELLARI, an order of soldiery under the Greek emperors, appointed to guard and distribute the ammunition broad; though authors are somewhat divided as to their office and quality. Among the Visigoths buccellarius was a general name for a client or vassal who lived at the expense of his lord. Some give the denomination to parasites in the courts of princes; others make them the body-guards of emperors; and others, again, fancy they were only such as emperors employed in putting persons to death privately.

BUCELLATUM, among ancient military writers, denotes camp-bread, or biscuit baked hard and dry, both for lightness and keeping. Soldiers always carried with them enough for a fortnight, and sometimes much longer, during the time that military discipline was kept up.

BUCCINA, an ancient musical and military instrument. It is usually taken for a kind of trumpet; which opinion is confirmed by Festus, by his defining it a crooked horn, played on like a trumpet. Vegetius observes, that the buccina was bent in a semicircle, in which respect it differed from the tuba or trumpet. It is very difficult to distinguish it from the cornu or horn, unless it was something smaller, and not quite so crooked; yet it certainly was of a different species, because we never read of the cornu in use with the watch, but only the buccina. Besides, the sound of the buccina was sharper, and to be heard much farther than either the cornu or the tuba. In Scripture, a similar instrument, used both in war and in the temple, was called *rams-horn*, *kiren* *jebel*, and *sepherot* *hagijobelim*.

This instrument was in use among the Jews to proclaim their feast-days, new moons, jubilees, sabbatical years, and the like. At Lacedæmon, notice was given by the buccina when it was supper time; and the like was done at Rome, where the grandees had a buccina blown both before and after they sat down to table. The sound of the buccina was called *buccinus*, or *bucinus*; and the musician who played on it was called *buccinator*.

BUCCINO, a city in the province Principato-Citeriore of the kingdom of Naples. It stands on the river Botta, at its junction with the Negro, over which is an antique Roman bridge. It contains 5320 inhabitants.

BUCENTAUR, a large galley of the doge of Venice, adorned with fine pillars on both sides, and gilt over from the prow to the stern. This vessel was covered over head with a kind of tent, made of purple silk. In it the doge received the great lords and persons of quality who visited Venice, accompanied by the ambassadors and counsellors of state, and all the senators, on benches by him. The same vessel served also in the magnificent ceremony of Ascension-day, on which the doge threw a ring into the sea to espouse it, and to denote his dominion over the Gulf of Venice.

BUCEPHALA, or **BUCEPHALOS**, in *Ancient Geography*, a town built by Alexander, on the western side of the Hydaspias, a river of India Citerior, so called in memory of his horse Bucephalus.

BUCER, **MARTIN**, one of the first authors of the Reformation at Strasburg, was born in 1491, in Alsace, and took the religious habit of St Dominic at seven years of age; but meeting afterwards with the writings of Martin Luther, and comparing them with the Scriptures, he began to entertain doubts concerning several things in the Roman Catholic religion. After some conferences with Luther at Heidelberg in 1521, he adopted most of his sentiments; but in 1532 he gave the preference to those of

Buccellarii
Bucer.

Buchan
Buchanan.

Zuinglius. He assisted in many conferences concerning religion; and in 1548, he was sent for to Augsburg to sign the agreement, called the *interim*, between the Papists and Protestants. His warm opposition to this project exposed him to many difficulties and hardships; the news of which reaching England, where his fame had already arrived, Cranmer, archbishop of Canterbury, gave him an invitation to come over, which he readily accepted. In 1549 a handsome apartment was assigned him in the University of Cambridge, and a salary to teach theology. King Edward VI. had the greatest regard for him. Being told that he was very sensible of the cold of the climate, and suffered much for want of a German stove, he sent him a hundred crowns to purchase one. Bucer died of a complication of disorders in 1551, and was buried at Cambridge with great funeral pomp. Five years afterwards, in the reign of Queen Mary, his body was dug up and publicly burnt, and his tomb demolished; but it was subsequently re-constructed by order of Queen Elizabeth.

BUCHAN, a district of Scotland, lying partly in the shire of Aberdeen and partly in that of Banff. It gives the title of earl to the noble and ancient family of Erskine.

BUCHANAN, GEORGE, one of the most illustrious characters of the sixteenth century, was born about the beginning of February in the year 1506. His father was Thomas, the second son of Thomas Buchanan of Drum-mikill; his mother Agnes Heriot, of the family of Tra-brown. The house from which he descended he has himself characterised as more remarkable for its antiquity than for its opulence. Thomas Buchanan the younger obtained from his father a grant of the farm of Mid-Leowen, or, as it is more commonly called, the Moss, situated in the parish of Killearn and county of Stirling. He died of the stone at a premature age; and about the same period, the poet's grandfather found himself in a state of insolvency. The family, which had never been opulent, was thus reduced to extreme poverty; but his mother struggled hard with the misery of her condition; and all her children, five sons and three daughters, arrived at the age of maturity. In the year 1531, a lease of two farms near Cardross was granted by Robert Erskine, commander of Dryburgh and Inchmahone, to her and three of her sons, Patrick, Alexander, and George. One of her daughters appears to have married a person of the name of Morison; for Alexander Morison, the son of Buchanan's sister, published an edition of his uncle's paraphrase of the Psalms. Her third son, whose extraordinary attainments have rendered the family illustrious, is reported by oral tradition to have been indebted for the rudiments of learning to Killearn school, which long continued to maintain a considerable reputation. Mid-Leowen, which stands on the banks of the Blane, is situated at the distance of about two miles from the village; and it may be conjectured that the future poet and statesman daily walked to school, and carried along with him his homely repast. Dr Mackenzie, whose authority is extremely slender, asserts that he was partly educated at the school of Dunbarton. His very promising talents recommended him to the favour and protection of his maternal uncle, James Heriot, who, apparently in the year 1520, sent him to prosecute his studies in the university of Paris. It was here that he began to cultivate his poetical talents; partly impelled, as he informs us, by the natural temperament of his mind, partly by the necessity of performing the usual exercises prescribed to younger students. Some of the French writers most capable of estimating his attainments, have not neglected to record his obligations to their country: Vauvassier has remarked that, although a Scotsman by birth, he might well pass for a French poet, since all that he knew of polite literature, and particularly of poetry,

he had acquired in France. Buchanan did not profess to Buchanan. be one of those bright geniuses who can master a new language every six weeks; he incidentally states that his knowledge of Latin was the result of much youthful labour. The Greek tongue, in which he likewise attained to proficiency, he acquired without the aid of a preceptor. The current speech of his native district at that period may be supposed to have been Gaelic. Of this language it is at least certain that he possessed some knowledge; and an anecdote has been related which at once confirms this supposition, and illustrates his peculiar vein of humour. When in France, having met with a woman who was said to be possessed with the devil, and who professed to speak all languages, he accosted her in Gaelic: as neither she nor her familiar returned any answer, he took a protest that the devil was ignorant of that tongue.

Within the space of two years after his arrival in Paris, his uncle died, and left him exposed to want in a foreign country: his misery was increased by a violent distemper, which had perhaps been occasioned by poverty and mortification; and in this state of hopeless languor he returned to Scotland at the critical age of sixteen. Having devoted the best part of a year to the recovery of his health, he next assumed the character of a soldier, and served along with the auxiliaries whom the duke of Albany had conducted from France. The Scottish forces, commanded by the regent in person, marched towards the borders of England, and, about the end of October 1523, laid siege to the castle of Werk. The auxiliaries carried the exterior wall by assault, but could not long occupy the station which they had gained. The large area between the two ramparts, intended as a receptacle, during the time of war, for the cattle and stores of the neighbouring peasantry, was at this crisis replenished with materials of a combustible nature; and when the garrison found themselves repulsed by the French soldiers, they set fire to the straw, and speedily expelled their enemies by the flames and smoke. During the two following days, the assailants persisted in battering the inner wall: when they had effected a sufficient breach, the French soldiers again rushed to the attack, and surmounted the ruins; but they were so fiercely assailed by missile weapons from the inner tower, which was yet entire, that after having sustained some loss, they were compelled to retreat, and repossessed the Tweed. The duke, finding his native troops disaffected, and the army on the English frontier too formidable from its numbers, removed his camp on the 11th of November; and as he marched towards Lauder after midnight, his army was terribly annoyed by a sudden storm of snow.

Buchanan, who belonged to a fierce and warlike nation, seems to have caught some portion of the military ardour. It was his youthful curiosity respecting the profession of arms which had thus prompted him to mingle in danger; and he was persuaded that there is a very close affinity between the studies of literature and of war. In his history of Scotland, written at an advanced age, he often describes feats of chivalry with great animation. But his experience in the course of this inglorious campaign did not render him more enamoured of a military life: the hardships which he had undergone reduced him to his former state of languor; and during the rest of the winter he was confined to bed. In the beginning of the ensuing spring, when he had completed the eighteenth year of his age, he was sent to the university of St Andrews, where he and his brother Patrick were at the same time matriculated in what was then called the Pedagogy, and afterwards St Mary's College. On the 3d of October 1525 George Buchanan took the degree of A. B.; and it

Buchanan appears from the faculty register that he was then a *pauiper* or exhibitor. In this college logic was then taught by John Meir, a celebrated doctor of the Sorbonne. Buchanan informs us that it was to hear his prelections that he had been sent to St Andrews, and that he afterwards followed Mair to France. It has been very confidently stated, that he was now a dependent on the bounty of this venerable commentator on Peter of Lombardy; and if the fact could be established by any competent evidence, the character of Buchanan must be subjected to severe reprehension; for he mentions his supposed benefactor in terms which convey no suggestion of gratitude. Of this generous patronage, however, there is not even the faintest shadow of evidence; and such a tale manifestly originated from the misinterpretation of a very unequivocal passage in Buchanan's account of his own life.

Upon his return to France, he became a student in the Scottish College of Paris. On the 10th of October 1527, he was incorporated as A. B., and he took the degree of A. M. next March. During the year 1529, he was a candidate for the office of procurator of the German nation; but his purlind countryman Robert Wauchope, who was afterwards titular archbishop of Armagh, and who sat in the council of Trent, was then elected for the ninth time. Buchanan was thus repulsed on the fifth of May, but on the third of June 1530 he was more successful. Before this period, the tenets of Luther had begun to be widely disseminated, and Buchanan was now added to the number of his converts. Having for the space of two years continued to struggle with the iniquity of fortune, he was appointed a regent or professor in the College of St Barbe, where he taught grammar for about three years. His eminent qualifications for such an employment will not be questioned, but his services do not seem to have procured him any splendid remuneration: in an elegy, apparently composed about this period of his life, he exhibits a dismal picture of the miseries to which the Parisian professors of humanity were then exposed. His appointment seems to have taken place in the year 1529. Gilbert Kennedy, earl of Cassilis, who was residing near this college, having become acquainted with Buchanan, admired his literary talents, and was delighted with his conversation: he was therefore solicitous to retain so accomplished a preceptor; and their closer connexion probably commenced in the year 1532. The first work that Buchanan committed to the press was a translation of the famous Thomas Linacre's rudiments of Latin grammar; which he inscribed to Lord Cassilis, "a youth of the most promising talents, and of an excellent disposition." This Latin version was printed at Paris in 1533.

After he had resided with his pupil for five years, they both returned to Scotland. At this period the earl had reached the age of majority; and Buchanan might only embrace a favourable opportunity of revisiting his relations and friends. Their connexion however was not immediately dissolved. While he was residing at the earl's seat in Ayrshire, he composed a little poem which rendered him extremely obnoxious to the ecclesiastics. In this poem, which bears the title of *Somnium*, and is a happy imitation of Dunbar, he expresses his own abhorrence of a monastic life, and stigmatizes the impudence and hypocrisy of the Franciscan friars. It was his original intention to resume his former occupations in France, but James the Fifth retained him in the capacity of preceptor to one of his natural sons. This son was not, as has generally been supposed, the celebrated James Stewart, who afterwards became regent of the kingdom, but another who bore the same baptismal name. His mother was Elizabeth Shaw, of the family of Sauchie; and he died in the year 1548. It was perhaps in the year 1537 that

Buchanan entered upon his new charge; for in the course of that year the king made an arrangement with respect to his four sons. The abbacies of Melrose and Kelso were secured in the name of Buchanan's pupil, who was the eldest. The preference of a profane scotter at priests must have augmented the spleen of the clergy; and the Franciscan friars, still smarting from his *Somnium*, found means of representing him to the king as a man of depraved morals and of dubious faith. But James had formerly begun to discover their real character; and the part which he supposed them to have acted in a late conspiracy against his own life, had not contributed to diminish his antipathy. Instead of consigning the poet to disgrace or punishment, the king, who was aware that private resentment would improve the edge of his satire, enjoined him in the presence of many courtiers to renew his well-directed attack on the same pious fathers. He accordingly applied himself to the composition of the poem afterwards published under the title of *Franciscanus*; and, to satisfy the king's impatience, soon presented him with a specimen. This production, as it now appears in its finished state, may be pronounced one of the most pungent satires which any language can exhibit. No class of men was ever more completely exposed to ridicule and infamy; nor is it astonishing that the popish clergy afterwards regarded the author with implacable hatred.

But the church being infallible, he speedily recognized the danger of accosting its retainers by their proper names. At the beginning of the year 1539, many individuals suspected of Lutheranism were involved in the horrors of persecution. Towards the close of February, five were committed to the flames, nine made a formal recantation of their supposed errors, and many were driven into exile. Buchanan had been comprehended in this general arrest; and after he was committed to custody, Cardinal Beaton endeavoured to accelerate his doom by tendering to the king a sum of money as the price of his blood. Of this circumstance Buchanan was apprized by some of his friends at court; and his knowledge of the king's incapacity must have augmented all the terrors of his situation. Stimulated by the thoughts of increasing danger, he made his escape through the window of the apartment in which he was confined; but he had soon to encounter new disasters. When he reached the frontier of the two kingdoms, he was molested by the freebooters, who at that time were its sole inhabitants; and his life was again exposed to jeopardy from the contagion of a pestilential disease, which then raged in the north of England. On his arrival in London, he experienced the friendship of Sir John Hainstford, an English knight, who is mentioned as the only person that protected him against the fury of the papists. He met with no particular inducement to continue his residence in England, which was then governed by an atrocious tyrant. The civilization of France, as well as the particular intimacies which he had formed in that country, led him to adopt the resolution of returning to Paris; but, on his arrival, he found that Cardinal Beaton was residing there in the capacity of an ambassador; and his friend Andrew Govea, a native of Portugal, having invited him to Bordeaux, he did not hesitate to embrace such an opportunity of removing himself beyond the reach of the cardinal's deadly hatred. Of the College of Guicenne, lately founded in that city, Govea had been nominated principal; and Buchanan, evidently on his recommendation, was now appointed one of the professors. Here he must have fixed his residence before the close of the year; for to Charles the Fifth, who made his solemn entry into Bordeaux on the first of December 1539, he presented a poem in the name of the college.

The task assigned him at Bordeaux was that of teach-

Buchanan, in the Latin language. For an occupation of this kind he seems to have entertained no particular affection; but although sufficiently laborious, it never impaired the native elevation of his mind. His poetical studies he now prosecuted with great ardour; during the three years of his residence at Bordeaux, he completed four tragedies, together with various other poems. The earliest of his dramatic compositions bears the title of *Baptistes*. He had applied himself to the study of the Greek language without the aid of a preceptor, and as a useful exercise had executed a translation of the *Medea* of Euripides. This version he now delivered to the academical stage, and afterwards suffered it to be printed. Those two tragedies were performed with a degree of applause which almost exceeded his hopes. He afterwards completed his *Jephthes*, and translated *Alecius*, another drama of his favourite poet. These last productions, as he originally intended them for publication, were elaborated with superior diligence. The tragedy of *Jephthes* is conformable to the models of the Grecian theatre, and is not destitute of interest. The subject is highly dramatic; it is a subject which his great exemplar Euripides might have been inclined to select. The situation of a father who had unwarily subjected himself to the dreadful necessity of sacrificing a beloved and only child, the repugnant and excruciating sensations of the mother, the daughter's mingled sentiments of heroism and timidity, are delineated with considerable felicity of dramatic conception. The tender or pathetic was not however the peculiar province of Buchanan, whose talents were bold, masculine, and commanding. The *Baptistes*, although inferior to the other tragedy in dramatic interest, is more strongly impregnated with the author's characteristic sentiments. Its great theme is civil and religious liberty; and against tyranny and priestcraft the poet frequently expresses himself with astonishing boldness. Some of his allusions bear a very easy application to the late conduct of Cardinal Beaton. In the tragedies of the ancient Greek poets, what is termed the prologue is always an essential part of the drama; but the prologue of the *Baptistes* resembles those of Terence. Buchanan seems to have adopted this model, because it afforded him a better opportunity of preparing his auditors for the bold sentiments which they were about to hear.

During the term of his residence in the College of Guienne, the satirist of the Scottish clergy did not find himself totally secure from danger. The cardinal, in a letter addressed to the archbishop of Bordeaux, requested him to secure the person of the heretical poet; but as his letter had been entrusted to the care of some individual much interested in the welfare of Buchanan, he was suffered to remain without molestation. Still however he found himself annoyed by the threats of the cardinal and the grey friars; but the death of King James, and the appearance of a dreadful plague in Guienne, alleviated his former apprehensions. Having resided three years at Bordeaux, he returned to Paris. In 1544 he was officiating as a regent in the college of Cardinal le Moine; and he apparently retained the same station till 1547. About this period he was miserably tormented with the gout. The ardour of his fancy was however undiminished: in an interesting elegy, composed in 1544, and addressed to his late colleagues Tastaveus and Tévius, he exhibits a dismal picture of his own situation, and gratefully commemorates the assiduous attentions of his present colleagues Turnebus and Gelida. It is remarked by a French historian, that three of the most learned men in the world then taught humanity in the same college. The first class was taught by Turnebus, the second by Buchanan, and the third by Muretus.

The king of Portugal had recently founded the university of Coimbra; and as his own dominions could not afford a sufficient supply of able professors, he invited Andrew Govea to preside over the new institution, and to conduct from France a considerable number of proficientes in philosophy and ancient literature. Govea accordingly returned to his native country in the year 1547, accompanied by Buchanan and other associates. The affairs of Europe presented an alarming aspect; and Portugal seemed to be almost the only corner free from tumults. To the proposals of Govea he had not only lent a willing ear, but was so much satisfied with the character of his associates, that he also persuaded his brother Patrick to join this famous colony. To several of its members he had formerly been attached by the strictest ties of friendship; these were Gruchius, Garentius, Tévius, and Vinetus, who have all distinguished themselves by the publication of learned works. The other scholars of whom it consisted were Arnoldus Fabricius, John Costa, and Anthony Mender, who are not known as authors: the first was a native of Bazas, the other two were Portuguese. All these professors except P. Buchanan and Fabricius had taught in the College of Guienne. To this catalogue Dempster has added other two Scottish names, those of John Rutherford and William Ramsay. Govea died in the year 1548; and after Buchanan and his associates were deprived of his protection, the Portuguese began to persecute them with unrelenting bigotry. Three of their number were thrown into the dungeons of the inquisition, and after having been subjected to a tedious imprisonment, were at length arraigned at this direful tribunal. According to the usual practice, they were not confronted with their accusers, of whose very names they were ignorant. As they could not be convicted of any crime, they were overwhelmed with reproaches, and again committed to custody.

Buchanan had attracted an unusual degree of indignation. He was accused of having written an impious poem against the Franciscans, yet with the nature of that poem the inquisitors were totally unacquainted. He was also charged with the heinous crime of eating flesh in Lent, and yet with respect to that very article, not a single individual in Portugal deemed it necessary to practise abstinence. Some of his strictures relative to monks were registered against him, but they were such as monks only could regard as criminal. He was moreover accused of having alleged, in a conversation with some young Portuguese, that with respect to the eucharist, St Augustin appeared to him to be strongly inclined towards the opinion condemned by the church of Rome. Two witnesses, whom he afterwards discovered to be Ferrerius and Talpin, made a formal deposition of their having been assured by several respectable informants that Buchanan was disaffected to the Romish faith. After the inquisitors had harassed him for the space of nearly two years and a half, they confined him to a monastery, for the purpose of receiving edifying lessons from the monks; whom, with due discrimination, he represents as men by no means destitute of humanity, but totally unacquainted with religion. In their custody he continued several months; and it was about this period that he began his version of the Psalms, afterwards brought to so happy a conclusion. That this translation was a penance imposed upon him by his illiterate guardians, is only to be considered as an idle tale: it is much more probable that a large proportion of the good monks were incapable of reading the Psalms in their native language. When he was at length restored to liberty, he solicited the king's permission to return to France: he was however requested to protract his residence in Portugal, and was presented with a small sum of

Buchanan money till he should be promoted to some station worthy of his talents; but his ambition of Portuguese preferment was not perhaps very violent, for he still remembered with regret the learned and interesting society of Paris. In a beautiful poem, entitled *Desiderium Luletie*, and apparently composed before his retreat from Portugal, he patriotically bewails his absence from that metropolis, which he represents under the allegory of a pastoral mistress. Having embarked in a Candian vessel, which he found in the port of Lisbon, he was safely conveyed to England. Here however he did not long remain, though he might have procured some creditable situation, which he himself has not particularized. He returned to France about the beginning of the year 1553. Soon after his arrival in Paris, he was appointed a regent in the College of Boncourt; and in the year 1555 he was called from that charge by the celebrated Comte de Brissac, who engaged him as the domestic tutor of his son Timoleon de Cosse.

During the five years of his connexion with this illustrious family, he alternately resided in Italy and France. In the mean time several of his poetical works were published at Paris. In 1556 appeared the earliest specimen of his poetical paraphrase of the Psalms; and his version of the *Alceis* of Euripides was printed in the course of the subsequent year. This tragedy he dedicated to Margaret, the daughter of Francis the First, a munificent princess, whose favour he seems to have enjoyed. His engagement with the family of Brissac terminated in the year 1560, when the civil war had already commenced. It was perhaps the alarming aspect of affairs in France that induced Buchanan to hasten his return to his own country. The precise period of his return has not been ascertained; but it is certain that he was at the Scottish court in January 1562, and that in the month of April he was officiating as classical tutor to the queen, who was then in the twentieth year of her age. Every afternoon she read with Buchanan a portion of Virgil. This author is not commonly recommended to very young scholars; and indeed the study of the Latin language is known to have occupied a considerable share of her previous attention.

The era at which Buchanan finally returned to his native country was highly important. After a violent struggle against the ancient superstition, the principles of the reformed faith received the sanction of parliament in the year 1560. For the doctrines of the reformation he had long cherished a secret affection; and he now professed himself a member of the protestant church of Scotland. The earl of Murray, as commendator of the priory of St Andrews, possessed the right of nominating the principal of St Leonard's College; and a vacancy occurring in the year 1560, he conferred the office upon Buchanan. The tenure of his appointment seems to have imposed upon him the task of reading occasional lectures on divinity.

On his return to Scotland, he determined to publish, in a correct manner, the poetical works which he had composed at many different periods of his variegated life. Of his admirable version of the Psalms, the date of the first complete edition is uncertain, for it has been omitted in the book itself; but a second edition appeared in the year 1566. When he consigned his Psalms to the printer, he was probably engaged in superintending the classical studies of Queen Mary; and to that accomplished and hopeful princess he gratefully inscribed a work destined for immortality. His dedication has received, and indeed is entitled to the highest commendation for its terseness, compression, and delicacy. Buchanan had recommended himself to the queen by other poetical tributes: one of his most beautiful productions is the Epithalamium which he composed on her first nuptials; and several of his miscellaneous poems relate to the same princess. Nor was

she insensible of his powerful claims upon the protection Buchanan. of his country. In the year 1564 she had rewarded his literary merit by conferring upon him the temporalities of Crossragwell Abbey, which amounted in annual valuation to the sum of £500 in Scottish currency. The abbacy had become vacant by the death of Quintin Kennedy. But while he thus enjoyed the favour of the queen, he did not neglect his powerful friend the earl of Murray. To that nobleman he inscribed his *Franciscanus* during the same year. The date of the earliest edition is uncertain; but the dedication was written at St Andrews on the 5th of June 1564, when he was perhaps residing in the earl's house. He at the same time prepared for the press his miscellany entitled *Frater Fraterini*, a collection of satires, almost exclusively directed against the impurities of the popish church. The absurdity of its doctrines, and the immoral lives of its priests, afforded him an ample field for the exercise of his formidable talents; and he has alternately employed the weapons of sarcastic irony and vehement indignation. His admirable wit and address must have contributed to promote the cause which Luther had so ardently exposed; and Buchanan ought also to be classed with the most illustrious of the reformers. In the year 1567 he published another collection, consisting of *Elegia, Silve, Hendecasyllabi*. To this miscellany was prefixed an epistle to his friend Peter Daniel, a learned man; who is still remembered for his edition of Virgil, with the commentary of Servius. His *Micellanea* were not printed till after the death of the author. Of his short and miscellaneous pieces the subjects are sometimes indeed of a trivial nature; but even those lighter efforts serve to evince the wonderful versatility of his mind. His epigrams, which consist of three books, are not the least remarkable of his compositions; the terseness of the diction, the ingenuity and pungency of the thoughts, have deservedly placed them in a very high class.

Of the general assembly commenced at Edinburgh on the 25th of December 1563, Buchanan had sat as a member, and had been appointed one of the commissioners for revising the Book of Discipline. He sat in the June assemblies of 1564 and the three following years, and likewise in that of December 1567. He was a member of various committees, and evidently had no small influence in the affairs of the church. Of the assembly which met at Edinburgh on the 25th of June 1567, he had the honour of being chosen moderator.

The nation was now in a state of anarchy, and the change of affairs drew Buchanan into the vortex of politics. The recent conduct of Queen Mary, whom he once regarded in so favourable a light, had offered such flagrant insults to virtue and decorum, that his attachment was at length converted into the strongest antipathy. The simple and uncontroverted history of her proceedings, from the period of her pretended reconciliation with Darnley to that of her marriage with Bothwell, exhibits such strong moral evidence of her criminality as it seems impossible for an unprejudiced mind to resist. "There are indeed," as Mr Hume has remarked, "three events in our history, which may be regarded as touchstones of party-men. An English Whig, who asserts the reality of the popish plot, an Irish Catholic, who denies the massacre of 1641, and a Scotch Jacobite, who maintains the innocence of Queen Mary, must be considered as men beyond the reach of argument or reason, and must be left to their prejudices." Buchanan accompanied the regent Murray when he visited England for the purpose of appearing before Elizabeth's commissioners. On the 4th of October 1568, the conference was opened at York; but in the course of the ensuing month it was transferred to Westminster. This singular transaction was managed with

Buchanan, great address on both sides; nor was Buchanan the least powerful of Murray's coadjutors; he composed in Latin a detection of Queen Mary's actions, which was produced to the commissioners at Westminster, and was afterwards circulated with great industry by the English court. His engaging in a task of this kind, as well as his mode of executing it, has frequently been urged as a proof of his moral depravity; and, to augment his delinquency, the benefits conferred upon him by the unfortunate queen have been multiplied with considerable ingenuity. It is certain that she granted him the temporalities of Croisnagwell Abbey; and beyond this single point the evidence cannot be extended. Nor was this reward bestowed upon a man who had performed no correspondent services. He had officiated as her classical tutor, and had composed various poems for the entertainment of the Scottish court; but the dedication of his Psalms might almost be considered as equivalent to any reward which she conferred. If Buchanan celebrated her in his poetical capacity, and before she ceased to be an object of praise, it certainly was not incumbent upon him to approve the atrocious actions which she afterwards performed. The duty which he owed to his country was a prior consideration, and with that duty his further adherence to the infatuated princess was utterly incompatible.

The earl of Murray and his associates returned to Scotland in the beginning of the ensuing year. Buchanan's Detection, which was not published till 1571, seems to have been entrusted to Dr Wilson, who is supposed by Mr Laing to have added the "Actio contra Mariam Scotorum Reginam," and the Latin translation of Mary's first three letters to the earl of Bothwell. The good regent did not long survive those transactions: on the 23d of January 1570 he was shot in the street of Linlithgow by Hamilton of Bothwellhaugh, whom his clemency had formerly rescued from an ignominious death. The assassin had been confirmed in his enterprise by the approbation of his powerful kinsmen. The indignation of Buchanan was naturally roused against the house of Hamilton; and he had sufficient cause to suspect that their dangerous schemes were not yet completed. Under such impressions as these, he composed "Ane Admonition direct to the trew Lordis, Mantenaris of the Kingis Graces Authoritie," in which he earnestly adjured them to protect the young king, and the children of the late regent, from the perils which seemed to await them. It was apparently in the course of the same year, 1570, that he wrote another Scottish tract, entitled *Chamelon*. In this satirical production he very successfully exposes the wavering politics of the famous secretary Maitland. Soon after the assassination of his illustrious friend, Buchanan was removed to a situation of no small importance; he was appointed one of the preceptors of the young king. For this preferment he appears to have been indebted to the privy council, and others of the nobility and gentry, who assembled in consequence of that disastrous event, for the purpose of providing for the public security.

During his infancy, the prince had been committed to the charge of the earl of Mar, a nobleman of the most unblemished integrity. In 1570, when Buchanan entered upon his office, James was only four years of age. The chief superintendence of his education was left to the earl's brother, Alexander Erskine. The preceptors associated with Buchanan, were Peter Young, and the two abbots of Cambuskenneth and Dryburgh, both related to the noble family of Mar. Young, who was respectable for his capacity and learning, was of a disposition naturally mild; and his attention to his future interest rendered him cautious of offending a pupil who was soon to be the dispenser of public favours. But the lofty and independent

spirit of Buchanan was not to be controlled by the mere suggestions of cold caution: the honourable task which the voice of his country had assigned to his old age, he discharged with simple integrity, and, so far as he himself was concerned, he was little solicitous what impression the strictness of his discipline might leave on the mind of his royal pupil. James, who was of a timid nature, long remembered the commanding aspect which his illustrious preceptor had assumed. He was accustomed to say of some individual high in office, "that he ever trembled at his approach, it minded him so of his pedagogue." The young monarch's proficiency in letters was said as reflected no discredit on his early instructors. Buchanan made him a scholar, and nature had destined him for a pedant.

Nor was this the only preferment which he now obtained. His first civil appointment, which he seems to have retained but a short time, was that of director of the chancery. The keeper of the privy seal, John, afterwards Lord Maitland of Thirlstane, having been deprived of his office on account of his adherence to the queen, it was conferred upon Buchanan in the year 1570. The earl of Lennox was at that time regent. His situation as lord privy seal was undoubtedly honourable, and probably lucrative. It entitled him to a seat in parliament. This office he retained for several years; for under the date of November 1575, he is enumerated among the ordinary officers of state entitled to a seat in the council. His talents and his station evidently gave him no small share of influence, and he was associated in various commissions of importance.

Notwithstanding the precarious state of his health, and the number of his avocations, he found leisure to compose a most profound and masterly compendium of political philosophy. It is entitled *De Jure Regni apud Scotos*, and was first printed at Edinburgh in the year 1579. Although it professedly relates to the rights of the crown of Scotland, it comprehends a subtle and eloquent delineation of the general principles of government. The work is exhibited in the form of a dialogue between the author and Thomas the son of Sir Richard Maitland. Buchanan's dialogue excited a degree of attention which will not appear surprising, when we consider the high reputation of the author, and the boldness of the precepts which he inculcates. In the course of a few years, his tenets were formally attacked by his learned countrymen Blackwood, Winzet, and Barclay, all of whom were zealous Catholics. Some of Barclay's arguments were long afterwards refuted by Locke. Buchanan was also attacked, though in an indirect manner, by Sir Thomas Craig, and by Sir John Wemyss. Craig was a lawyer of much learning and ability, and his treatise on the feudal law still continues to be held in great estimation. Sir George Mackenzie, the servile tool of a most profligate court, undertook to defend against Buchanan the same maxims of polity; and it must be acknowledged that "the right divine of kings to govern wrong," was a very suitable doctrine for the ministers of Charles and James. In the course of the seventeenth century, his leading principles were also opposed by Sir Lewis Stewart, a lawyer, and by Sir James Turner, a soldier. The former wrote in Latin, the latter in English, but neither of their productions has been printed; and the republic of letters has sustained no detriment by their long suppression. He was incidentally assailed by many foreign authors, who seem in general to have been bewildered by the current doctrine of the divine and indefeasible right of kings, and the passive obedience of subjects. This was indeed the doctrine of Catholics and Protestants, of civilians and divines. Grotius, though born under a free republic, and certainly a man of a great and liberal mind, did not entirely escape the contamination of

Buchanan. those slavish maxims which were so prevalent during the age in which he lived : the right of resisting any superior power which happens to be established, he has discussed in a manner that could hardly offend the completest despot in Europe. There is perhaps too much justice in the remark of Rousseau, that it is his most common method of reasoning, to establish the right by the fact. It is one general fault of those writers, to found their theories on passages of scripture which are not didactic or exegetical, but merely historical. This obsolete perversion they seem to have derived from the authority of those early theologians who are commonly styled the fathers of the church; and who, if not always very safe guides in morality and in biblical criticism, are certainly exceptionable guides in political science. The degrading doctrine of passive obedience was inculcated by Salmasius, Bochart, Usher, and indeed by several very able men who approached much nearer to our own times : it was even inculcated by the famous Dr Berkeley, in some metaphysical discourses preached before the university of Dublin in the year 1712. It is however a doctrine which no Briton, capable of reflection, and possessed of ordinary sincerity, will now hesitate a single moment in rejecting with the utmost indignation.

But the full measure of Buchanan's ignominy has not yet been related. In the year 1584 the parliament condemned his dialogue and history as unfit to remain for records of truth to posterity; and, under a penalty of two hundred pounds, commanded every person who possessed copies to surrender them within forty days, in order that they might be purged of "the offensive and extraordinary matters" which they contained. In 1664, the privy council of Scotland issued a proclamation, prohibiting all subjects, of whatever degree, quality, or rank, from transcribing or circulating any copies of a manuscript translation of the dialogue. And in 1683, the loyal and orthodox university of Oxford doomed to the flames the political works of Buchanan, Milton, Languet, and other heretics. This university, says Cunningham, debauched the minds of the youth with its slavish doctrines, and pronounced a severe judgment against Buchanan for vindicating the rights of the kingdom. The Scottish legislature, the English university, and the popish tribunal of the inquisition, seem to have viewed this unfortunate speculator with equal abhorrence. And what are the terrible doctrines that once excited so violent an alarm? Buchanan maintains that all power is derived from the people; that it is more safe to entrust our liberties to the definite protection of the laws, than to the precarious discretion of the king; that the king is bound by those conditions under which the supreme power was originally committed to his hands; that it is lawful to resist, and even to punish tyrants. When he speaks of the people as opposed to the king, he evidently includes every individual of the nation except one. And is a race of intelligent beings to be assimilated to a tract of land, or a litter of pigs; to be considered, absolutely and unconditionally, as the lawful patrimony of a family which either merit, accident, or crime, may originally have elevated to the summit of power? In this country and this age it certainly is not necessary to remark, that man can neither inherit nor possess a right of property in his fellow-creatures. What is termed loyalty, may, according to the circumstances of the case, be either a virtue or a vice. Loyalty to Antoninus and loyalty to Nero must assuredly have flowed from different sources. If the Roman people had endeavoured to compass the death of Nero, would this have been foul and unnatural rebellion? The doctrine of punishing tyrants in their persons, either by a private arm, or by the public forms of law, is indeed of a delicate and dangerous nature; and it

may be considered as amply sufficient, to ascertain the previous right of forcible resistance. It will always be extremely difficult, if not impossible, to find a competent tribunal and impartial judges. But if mankind are at length roused to the redress of enormous wrongs, the prince who has either committed or sanctioned an habitual violation of the best rights of the people, will seldom fail to meet with an adequate reward; and in spite of all the slavish theories of his priests and lawyers, mankind will not long be reasoned out of the strongest feelings of their nature. Divine right and passive obedience were never more strenuously inculcated, than in the reign of Charles the First.

In the seventy-fourth year of his age, Buchanan composed a brief sketch of his own life. The last production which he lived to complete was his history of Scotland, *Herum Scotticarum Historia*. In the year 1582, it issued from the press of Alexander Arbutnot, printer to the king. It bears the royal privilege, and is dedicated to the young monarch. Between the original formation of his plan, and the publication of the history itself, nearly twenty years must have elapsed; but it is to be supposed that he long revolved the subject in his mind, and had proceeded to amass the greater part of his materials, before he applied himself to its composition; and during that interval, his attention had been distracted by various pursuits, political as well as literary.

Buchanan has divided his history into twenty books. The first three ought rather to have been exhibited in the form of an introductory dissertation, for the historical narrative properly commences with the fourth book. His preliminary enquiries are directed to the geographical situation, the nature of the soil and climate, the ancient names and manners, and the primitive inhabitants, of the British islands. The third book consists of a series of quotations from the Greek and Latin authors. The whole of this introductory part displays his usual erudition and sagacity; and, in the opinion of Archbishop Usher, no writer had investigated the antiquities of his country with superior diligence. In these disquisitions he evinces his knowledge of the Celtic as well as of the classical languages. In the earlier part of his narrative, he has reposed too much confidence on his predecessor Boyce. He appeals to several other Scottish historians; and he unquestionably had access to historical documents which are no longer extant. He has occasionally availed himself of the collateral aid of the English and French writers. Of the earlier reigns his sketch is brief and rapid; nor has he attempted to establish any chronological notation till he descends to the beginning of the fifth century. It must indeed be acknowledged that he has repeated the fabulous line of our ancient kings; but that continued till a much later period to be regarded as an article of national faith. Like most of the classical historians, he is too remiss in marking the chronology of the different facts which he relates. From the reign of the great King Robert, his narrative becomes much more copious and interesting; but the history of his own times, which were pregnant with remarkable events, occupies far the largest proportion of his twenty books. In some of the transactions which he records, his own affections and passions were deeply concerned, and might not unreasonably be expected to impart some tincture to his style. His indignation against the ill-fated queen he shared with a very large proportion of his fellow-subjects; and many of her actions were such as could not fail of exciting the antipathy of every well-regulated mind. The composition of his history betrays no symptoms of the author's old age and infirmities; his style is not merely distinguished by its correctness and elegance, it breathes all the fervent anima-

Buchanan. tion of youthful genius. The noble ideas which so frequently rise in his mind, he always expresses in language of correspondent dignity. His narrative is extremely perspicuous, variegated, and interesting; it is seldom deficient, and never redundant. His moral and political reflections are profound and masterly. He is ready upon all occasions to vindicate the unalienable rights of mankind; and he uniformly delivers his sentiments with a noble freedom and energy. It is with the utmost propriety that the learned Conring has commended him as a man of exquisite judgment. Thuanus remarks that although much of his time had been spent in scholastic occupations, yet his history might be supposed the production of a man whose whole life had been exercised in the political transactions of the state; the felicity of his genius, and the greatness of his mind, having enabled him so completely to remove every impediment incident to an obscure and humble lot. And, in the opinion of Bishop Burnet, "his stile is so natural and nervous, and his reflections on things are so solid, that he is justly reckoned the greatest and best of our modern authors."

The publication of this great work he did not long survive. His usual vein of pleasantry did not entirely desert him on his death-bed. When visited by John Davidson, a distinguished clergyman, he devoutly expressed his reliance on the atoning blood of Christ; but he could not refrain from introducing some facetious reflections on the absurdities of the mass. He expired soon after five o'clock in the morning of Friday the 28th of September 1582, at the age of seventy-six years and nearly eight months. His remains were interred in the cemetery of the Greyfriars: Calderwood informs us that the funeral took place on Saturday, and was attended by "a great company of the faithful."

Buchanan had experienced many of the vicissitudes of human life, and had been tried by prosperity as well as adversity. His moral and intellectual character procured him the same high respect from the most enlightened of his contemporaries. His stern integrity, his love of his country and of mankind, cannot fail of endearing his memory to those who possess congenial qualities; and such errors as he actually committed, will not perhaps be deemed unpardonable by those who recollect the condition of humanity. He was subject to the nice and irritable feelings which frequently attend exalted genius, enthusiastic in his attachment, and violent in his resentment, equally sincere in his love and in his hatred. His friends, among whom he numbered some of the most distinguished characters of the age, regarded him with a warmth of affection which intellectual eminence cannot alone secure. His conversation was alternately facetious and instructive: his wit and humour are still proverbial among his countrymen. Such of his contemporaries as could best judge of his conduct and character, evidently regarded him as a man of sincere piety.

Nor was the genius of Buchanan less variegated than his life. In his numerous writings he discovers a vigorous and mature combination of talents, which have seldom been found united in equal perfection. To an imagination excursive and brilliant, he unites an undeviating rectitude of judgment. His learning was at once elegant, various, and profound: Turnebus, who was associated with him in the same college, and whose opinion is entitled to the greatest deference, has characterized him as a man of consummate erudition. Most of the ancient writers had limited their aspiring hopes to one department of literature; and even to excel in one, demands the happy perseverance of cultivated genius. Plato despaired of securing a reputation by his poetry; the poetical attempts of Cicero, though less contemptible perhaps than

they are commonly represented, would not have been sufficient to transmit an illustrious name to future ages. Buchanan has not only attained to excellence in each species of composition, but in each species has displayed a variety of excellence: in philosophical dialogue and historical narrative, in lyric and didactic poetry, in elegy, epigram, and satire, he has scarcely been surpassed either in ancient or modern times. A few Roman poets of the purest age have excelled him in their several provinces; but none of them has evinced the same capability of universal attainment. Horace and Livy wrote in the language which they had learned from their mothers; but its acquisition was to Buchanan the result of much youthful labour. Yet he writes with the purity, the elegance, and freedom of an ancient Roman. Unfettered by the classical restraints which shroud the powers of an ordinary mind, he expatiates with all the characteristic energy of strong and original sentiment; he produces new combinations of fancy, and invests them with language equally polished and appropriate. His diction uniformly displays a happy vein of elegant and masculine simplicity, and is distinguished by that propriety and perspicuity which can only be attained by a man perfectly master of his own ideas, and of the language in which he writes. The variety of his poetical measures is immense, and to each species he imparts its peculiar grace and harmony. The style of his prose exhibits correspondent beauties, nor is it chequered by phraseology unsuitable in that mode of composition. His diction, whether in prose or verse, is not a tissue of centos; he imitates the ancients as the ancients imitated each other. No Latin poet of modern times has united the same originality and elegance; no historian has so completely embodied the spirit of antiquity, without being betrayed into servile and pedantic imitation. But his works may legitimately claim a higher order of merit; they have added no inconsiderable influx to the general stream of human knowledge. The wit, the pungency, the vehemence, of his ecclesiastical satires, must have tended to foment the genial flame of reformation; and his political speculations are evidently those of a man who had nobly soared beyond the narrow limits of his age.

Of the works of Buchanan there are two collective editions, the earlier of which was published by Ruddiman, Edinb. 1713, 2tom. fol. The editor's masterly acquaintance with philology, and with the history of his native country, had eminently qualified him for such an undertaking. The accuracy of the text, and the utility of his illustrations, are equally conspicuous. He has prefixed a copious and satisfactory preface, and, among other appendages, has added a curious and critical dissertation *De Metris Buchananæis*. His annotations on Buchanan's history are particularly elaborate and valuable; but it is to be lamented that his narrow politics should so frequently have diverted him from the more useful tracts of enquiry. Where political prejudices intervene, he is too eager to contradict his author; and he often attempts, by very slender and incompetent proofs, to extenuate the authenticity of his narrative. In illustrating the moral and literary character of Buchanan, he spent many years of his life. With great zeal and success, he afterwards vindicated his paraphrase of the Psalms against the objections of Benson; but his political prejudices seem to have increased with the number of his years. His controversies with Love and Man were conducted with sufficient pertinacity; though it must be acknowledged that the advantage of learning, and even of candour, generally inclines to Ruddiman's side. Another edition of Buchanan's works was published by Burman, a most indefatigable and useful labourer in the department of philology, and a man of

Buchen
Buckler.

much more taste and talent than some of our readers may perhaps be inclined to suppose. Lugd. Bat. 1725, 2 tom. 4to. He has reprinted his predecessor's notes, dissertation, and other appendages, and has himself interspersed some critical annotations.¹

(x.)
BUCHEN, a city in the bailiwick of Bischofsheim, in the duchy of Baden. It stands on the river Morro, and contains 2340 inhabitants, carrying on various trades, among whom are many families of Jews.

BUCK, a circle in the Prussian government of Posen, formerly part of Poland. It extends over 371 square miles, or 237,440 acres, and contains six small cities and 117 villages, with 30,170 inhabitants. It is a woody, and in great part a sandy district. The chief place, of the same name, contains 222 houses and 1425 inhabitants.

BUCKDEN, a town of the hundred of Toesland, in the county of Huntingdon, sixty-one miles from London, on the great road to York. At this place there is a fine palace, the country residence of the Bishop of Lincoln. The inhabitants amounted in 1801 to 869, in 1811 to 914, and in 1821 to 973.

BUCKEBURG, a city, the capital of the dominions of the prince of Schenenburg-Lippe. It stands on the side of a hill, at the foot of which runs the river Aa, about seven miles from Minden. It has nothing remarkable except the castle of the prince, with a park around it, and the usual appendages of miniature royalty. The city is finely situated, and contains 2120 inhabitants, who chiefly depend on the court. Long. 8. 57. 21. E. Lat. 52. 15. 47. N.

BUCKENHAM, New, a market-town of the hundred of Shropham, in the county of Norfolk, twenty-five miles from London. The market is held on a Saturday. The inhabitants amounted in 1801 to 664, in 1811 to 691, and in 1821 to 720. Old Buckenham, one mile and a half distant from the above, though not a market-town, is the most populous of the two places, the inhabitants amounting in 1801 to 845, in 1811 to 937, and in 1821 to 1134.

BUCKINGHAM, the chief town of the county of that name, fifty-seven miles from London, on the river Ouse, over which there are three stone bridges. The streets are crooked and narrow, and the houses not remarkable for beauty. The markets are held here alternately with Aylesbury, and also the quarter sessions. There is a good market on Saturday. The inhabitants amounted in 1801 to 2605, in 1811 to 3001, and in 1821 to 3465.

BUCKINGHAM, *Georgie Villiers, Duke of*. See VILLIERS.
BUCKINGHAM, *John Sheffield, Duke of*. See SHEFFIELD.

BUCKLER, a piece of defensive armour used by the ancients. It was worn on the left arm, and composed of wickers woven together, or wood of the lightest sort, covered with hides, and fortified with plates of brass or other metal. The figure was sometimes round, sometimes oval, and sometimes almost square. Many of these bucklers were curiously adorned with figures of birds and beasts, as eagles and lions, and of the gods, the celestial bodies, and all the works of nature; a custom which was derived from the heroic times, and from them communicated to the Grecians, Romans, and Barbarians. The *scutum*, or Roman buckler, was composed of wood, the parts being joined together with little plates of iron, and the whole covered with a bull's hide. In the middle was an iron boss or *umbo* jutting out, to glance off stones and darts, and sometimes to press violently upon the enemy, and drive all before them. The *scuta* are to be distinguished from the *clypei*, which were less in size, and quite circular. This species of shield belonged properly to other na-

tions, though for some little time it was used by the Romans. The *scuta* themselves were of two kinds, the *ovata* and the *imbricata*; the former being a plain oval figure; the latter oblong, and bending inward like half a cylinder. Polybius makes the *scuta* four feet long, while Plutarch calls them *ovatae*, reaching down to the feet; and it is very probable that they covered almost the whole body, since in Livy we meet with soldiers, who stood on the guard, sometimes sleeping with their head on their shield, having fixed the other part of it in the earth.

Vaire BUCKLERS, those consecrated to the gods, and hung up in their temples, either in commemoration of some hero, or as a thanksgiving for a victory obtained over an enemy, whose bucklers, taken in war, were offered as trophies.

BUCKRAM, in commerce, a sort of coarse linen cloth stiffened with glue, and used in the making of garments, to keep them in the form intended.

BUCKS, or BUCKINGHAMSHIRE, an interior county of England. It is bounded on the north-west and north by Northamptonshire, on the west by Oxfordshire, on the south by Berkshire, and on the east by Bedfordshire and Hertfordshire, and in part by Middlesex, the southernmost part of the county, which ends in a point, approaching to within twelve or fourteen miles of London. It is in the form of a crescent, but, owing to indentations, very irregular in its breadth, being in the widest part only twenty-two miles. In length it is about fifty miles, and in extent about seven hundred and thirty square miles, or four hundred and seventy thousand statute acres, including roads, rivers, and the sites of towns.

The southern part of the county is beautifully diversified with hill and dale, is well wooded, has abundant and transparent streams, and is in a state of cultivation which exactly corresponds with the features of the district. The centre of the county is less picturesque, though some of the spurs of the hills which protrude into the vale of Aylesbury have a striking effect. The northern part is less beautiful, though the soil is commonly fertile. The principal rivers which convey to the sea the waters of this county are the Thames and the Ouse. The former rises in the vale of Aylesbury, enters Oxfordshire at Thame, and after various sinuosities again approaches Buckinghamshire at Henley, and becomes the boundary between it and Berkshire, till it receives the waters of the Coln, and passes by London to the sea. The Ouse, which drains the northern part of the county, comes out of Northamptonshire, receives the water of the Lysell at Newport-Pagnell, runs through Bedfordshire before it becomes navigable, and finally enters the sea at Lynn. The grand junction canal, which brings the coal districts into connection with the metropolis, passes through the northern and middle parts of the county, and, by means of subsidiary cuts, to Buckingham, Aylesbury, and Wendover, and extends the dispersion of cheap fuel over a wide district, which formerly suffered severely from the scarcity and dearth of that necessary of life.

A part of that range of hills consisting of chalk and flints, which begins in Norfolk, and extends to Dorsetshire, is here denominated the Chilterns. The soil in general is poor, and the climate bleak; but by assiduous cultivation, it produces moderate crops of barley, and some wheat, and feeds both sheep and horned cattle. The vale of Aylesbury, by which it is bounded to the south, is a district rich in the productions of the dairy; in wheat, beans, and especially in grazing pasture, it is also highly fertile. There is a part of the county adjoining to Bedfordshire,

Buckram
Bucks.

¹ See the second edition of Dr Irving's *Memoirs of the Life and Writings of George Buchan*. Edinb. 1817, 8vo.

Buckinghamshire. near Leighton-Buzzard, consisting of barren heaths; but, with this exception, the whole may be considered as highly fertile and well cultivated. According to the returns of rental under the property-tax, the average rent of land in Buckinghamshire by the acre, when compared with that of all England, was as 718 to 595; and was exceeded by no county except Leicester, Somerset, Warwick, and Hertford. The largest landed proprietors are the Grenville and Cavendish families, Mr Drake, Sir John Dashwood King, Lord Carrington, Mr Dupré, and some others.

The manufactures of Buckinghamshire are by no means considerable in number or extent. A few years ago the females were generally occupied in making pillow lace, both from thread and silk; but the progressive improvements in machinery have enabled the people of Nottingham and other parts of the kingdom to offer a substitute in machine lace so much cheaper, and equally beautiful, that the trade has been diminished to a very insignificant demand. There are several extensive establishments for making writing paper, on the transparent streams near Wycombe. At Amersham there are manufactories both of cotton and silk, which of late years have been extended. The chief trade of the county is that which arises from the internal navigation, by which heavy commodities, such as coals, iron, timber, and limestone, are supplied to the inhabitants.

The civil division of the county is into the eight hundreds of Buckinghamshire, Burnham, Cottesloe, Desborough, Ashenden, Aylesbury, Newport, and Stoke. It contains nine towns, a hundred and eighty-one parishes, and twenty-six hamlets. The bishop of Lincoln is the superior ecclesiastic, and administers his jurisdiction by the archdeacon of Bucks; but four of the parishes within the county are peculiar of the archbishopric of Canterbury, and four others are in the diocese of London and archdeaconry of St Albans. The county forms a part of the Norfolk judicatory circuit, and the assizes are held alternately at Buckingham and at Aylesbury; the quarter sessions always at the latter town.

The following titles are derived from this county, viz. Duke of Buckingham, Earl of Buckinghamshire, and Marquis of Aylesbury. Three members are returned to the House of Commons by the county.

The population of Buckinghamshire, and the inhabited houses, at the four decennial enumerations, have been as follows:

Years.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Houses.
1801.....	52,098	55,350	107,444	20,443
1811.....	56,208	61,442	117,650	20,986
1821.....	64,867	69,201	134,068	24,876
1831.....	71,734	74,795	146,529	

The families, according to the census of 1821, who were chiefly engaged in agriculture, were 16,640; those employed in trade, manufactures, or handicraft, were 8318; and those not comprised in either of the preceding classes were 8909.

The most attractive object in this county of a public nature is the college at Eton. This establishment, founded in 1440 by the unfortunate King Henry VI., is distinguished by the beauty of the valley in which it stands, the flourishing state of its endowments, and the number of eminent men who have there received the first rudiments of knowledge. The chapel is a fine specimen of the architecture of the age in which it was erected. The number of pupils has generally amounted to between three and four hundred, with the exception of the king's scholars, mostly the sons of families of the first rank.

Although some of the most magnificent seats of noblemen and gentlemen have been suffered to go to decay, such as Bulstrode, formerly belonging to the Dukes of

Portland, and now to the Duke of Somerset; and Eyesthorpe, the property of the Earl of Chesterfield; yet many remain to adorn the county of Bucks. The most eminent is that of Stowe, belonging to the Duke of Buckingham, celebrated for its grounds, its collection of pictures and statuary; to which may be added, Cliefden on the Thames, belonging to the Countess of Orkney; Drayners, to Lord Grenville; Wooton, to the Marquis of Chandos; Stoke Park, to J. Penn, Esq.; Hampden, to the Earl of Buckinghamshire; Hedsor, to Lord Boston; Wilton Park, to J. Dupré, Esq.; Latemers, to Lord George Cavendish; Hartwell, the residence of the late King of France, to Dr Lee; Sharncliffe, to Mr Drake; Taploe House, to Marquis Thomond; Wycombe Abbey, to Lord Carrington; Wycombe Park, to Sir John Dashwood; Chequers, to J. Russell, Esq.; and Kimble Magna, to Sir Scroope Barnard.

This county has been the birth-place or the residence of several distinguished individuals. Brown, usually called Capability Brown, celebrated for his taste and skill in ornamental gardening, was born and first employed at Stowe; Bishop Atterbury was born at Milton Keynes; Sir Kenelm Digby, "the prodigy of learning, credulity, valour, and romance," was born at Graythorpe, near Newport-Pagnell; Hampden the patriot, Waller the poet, and Ingoldsby and Desborough the parliamentary generals, were all related to each other, and natives of Bucks. It was the residence of Milton during two periods of his life; and the house near Clalfont, St Giles, which he inhabited, is still to be seen. Edmund Burke, Cowper the poet, and Herschel the acute and indefatigable astronomer, were inhabitants of Bucks. The observatory of the latter, and his powerful telescopes, still remain at Slough, and are usefully employed by his talented son.

The name of this county has been traced by some to the Saxon word *Buc*, which signifies a buck; but with more probability by others to the word *Buck*, which signified the beech, a tree which was the most abundant, especially on the Chilterns. Before the invasion of the Romans it was included in the division of the *Cotinaceni*, and after their conquest in their third province of *Flavia Caesariensis*. During the Heptarchy it was a part of the kingdom of Mercia, having had eighteen successive kings.

The chief towns, with their population in 1821, were the following:

Aylesbury.....	4400	Marlow.....	3863
Buckingham.....	3465	Newport-Pagnell.....	3103
Amersham.....	2612	Eton.....	2475
Olney.....	2333	Princes Risborough.....	1958
Great Missenden.....	1735	Beaconsfield.....	1736
Wendover.....	1607	Winslow.....	1222

BUCOLIC, in ancient poetry, a kind of poem relating to shepherds and country affairs, which, according to the generally received opinion, was of Sicilian origin. Bucolics, says Vossius, have some conformity with comedy. Like it, they are pictures and imitations of ordinary life; with this difference, however, that comedy represents the manners of the inhabitants of cities, and bucolics the occupations of people in the country. Sometimes, continues he, this last poem is in the form of a monologue, and sometimes in that of a dialogue. Sometimes there is action in it, sometimes only narration, and sometimes it is composed both of action and narration. The hexameter verse is the most proper for bucolics in the Greek and Latin tongues. Moschus, Bion, Theocritus, and Virgil, are the most renowned of the ancient bucolic poets.

BUCOVAR, a small circle in the Austrian kingdom of Hungary, surrounding the city of the same name, extending over two hundred and sixty-six square miles or 170,240 acres. The city stands at the junction of the

Buckinghamshire.
Bucovar.

Buda
Buddha.

Buka with the Danube. It contains one Catholic and two Greek churches, with seven hundred houses, and 6300 inhabitants, chiefly employed in the cultivation of vines, the rearing of silk-worms, and the spinning of silk. Long. 18. 55. 20. E. Lat. 45. 21. 9. N.

BUDA, or ORES, the capital of the Austrian kingdom of Hungary, jointly with the city of Pesth, with which it is in immediate communication by means of a bridge of boats leading to Margaret's Island. It is situated on the right bank of the Danube, is the residence of the palatines, and the seat of the boards of the several departments of government and of ecclesiastical affairs. The public buildings worthy of notice are the castle, in which the crown of Hungary is kept, the town-house, the orphan-house, and some of the churches. The inhabitants are about 28,500. They find employment in manufactures of leather, cutlery, silk, and woollen goods, and in the cultivation of the vineyards in the vicinity, which yield an excellent red wine. Long. 18. 55. 25. E. Lat. 47. 29. 44. N.

BUDÆUS, WILLIAM, descended of an ancient and illustrious family, was born at Paris in 1467. When young he was placed under masters; but barbarism prevailed so much in the schools of Paris, that Budæus took a dislike to them, and spent his whole time in idleness, till his parents sent him to the university of Orleans to study law. There he passed three years without adding to his knowledge; so that his parents having recalled him to Paris, found his ignorance no less than before, and his reluctance to study, and love to gaming and other useless pleasures, much greater. They talked no more to him of learning of any kind; and as he was heir of a large fortune, they left him to follow his own inclinations. He was passionately fond of hunting, and took great pleasure in horses, dogs, and hawks. But when the fire of youth began to cool, and his usual pleasures to pall upon his senses, he was seized with an irresistible passion for study; and having disposed of his hunting equipage, he abstracted himself from all business, in order to apply himself wholly to study; in which, without any assistance, he made a rapid progress, particularly in the Latin and Greek languages. The work which gained him greatest reputation was his treatise *De Asæ*, the first edition of which was published at Paris in 1514, in folio. His erudition and high birth were not his only advantages; for he had an uncommon share of piety, modesty, gentleness, and good-breeding. The French king, Francis I. often sent for him, and, at his persuasion, and that of Du Bellay, founded the royal college of France, for teaching the languages and sciences. The king sent him to Rome in the character of ambassador to Leo X., and in 1522 made him master of requests. The same year he was chosen provost of the merchants. He died at Paris in 1540. His works, extending to four volumes in folio, were printed at Basel in 1557.

BUDÆUS, JOHN FRANCIS, a celebrated Lutheran divine, and one of the most learned men Germany has produced, was born in 1667, at Anclam, a town of Pomerania, where his father was minister. He studied with great distinction at Greifswald and at Wittenberg; and having attained to eminence in languages, theology, and history, was appointed Greek and Latin professor at Colberg; afterwards professor of morality and politics in the university of Halle; and at length, in 1705, professor of divinity at Jena, where he died in 1729, after having acquired a very great reputation. His principal works are, 1. A large historical German Dictionary, Leipzig, 1709, folio; 2. *Historia Ecclesiastica Veteris Testamenti*, Halle, 1709, four vols. 4to; 3. *Elementa Philosophiæ Practicæ, instrumentalis et theoreticæ*, three vols. 8vo, which has passed through a great number of editions; 4. *Selecta Juris Naturæ et Gentium*, Halle, 1704, 8vo; 5. *Miscellanea*

Sacra, Jena, 1727, three vols. 4to; 6. *Introgo Historico-Theologica ad Theologiam Universam, singulasque ejus partes*, two vols. 4to, a work much valued by the Lutherans; and, 7. A Treatise on Atheism and Superstition.

BUDDHĀ or BUDDHĀ, one of the two appearances of Vishnu, assumed for the purpose of deluding the enemies of the gods, and effecting their destruction by leading them to profess heretical opinions, and thus to reject the Hindu religion. In the Bhagawāt, a work held in high esteem by the great majority of the Hindus, it is expressly declared, "that, at the commencement of the Kali Yuga, Vishnu became incarnate in Kikāta, under the name of Buddha, the son of Jina, for the purpose of deluding the enemies of the gods;" that "the Undiscernible Being, having assumed a mortal form, preached heretical doctrines in the three cities founded by Maya, for the purpose of destroying, by deluding, the enemies of the gods, steadfast in the religion prescribed by the Vedas;" that praise is due to "the pure Buddha, the deluder of the Daityas and Danawas;" and that, "by his words, as Buddha, Vishnu deludes the heretics." The same legend is related in a more detailed manner in the Kāshī Khānd of the Skānda Purāna, and also in the Gāṇeśha Upa-Purāna, in which the appearance of Buddha is described as a manifestation rather than an incarnation of Vishnu; and an account is given of the circumstances under which it is alleged to have been made. According to the Purānas, Divodāsa, a king of the solar race, finding Kāshī unsteady, took possession of the place, and there established the religion of Vishnu on so firm a foundation, and rendered his people so virtuous and happy, that the gods having become alarmed lest they should lose their supremacy, which they maintained by the use of very different means, applied to Vishnu and Shiva to relieve them from their anxieties on this head. The two incarnations of the Supreme Being, however, declared at first that it would be unjust to deprive so virtuous a prince of his kingdom; but Divodāsa, having obtained as a boon from Brahma that none of the deities should remain in his kingdom, or exercise any power over it, Shiva at length waxed wrath at being so long banished from his favourite residence, and consented to fulfil the malignant wishes of the deities. But how was this to be accomplished? As long as Divodāsa and his subjects remained steadfast in their religion, they were secure from injury; it therefore became necessary to lead them into error as a pretext for destroying them; and with this view Devī, the twelve sons, and Gāṇeśha, were employed, but without success. At last, when these minor tempters had failed, Vishnu appeared, as Buddha, and effected their apostasy.

From the tenor of this legend may be divined, *a priori*, the doctrines which it was necessary for Buddha to propagate, in order to induce Divodāsa and his subjects to apostatize from the religion of the Vedas. These in fact were,—that no credit whatever is due to the Vedas or Shāstras; that it is vain to worship the images of gods; that sacrifices are cruel and sinful; that there is no such thing as transmigration of souls; that at death the five elements in the body dissolve never to reunite; that pleasure is the grand object of life, and that all acts of abstinence, piety, and charity, are unprofitable; that the body is man's real god, and should alone be worshipped; that pleasant food, fine clothes, and handsome women, form the grand felicity of man; that this world is without beginning, and consequently owes its existence neither to creator nor cause; and that Brahma, Vishnu, Shiva, Budra, and all the other gods, are mere creatures of fancy and fear, and never had a being, except in the imaginations of their worshippers. In short, the ancient Brahminical Buddha, whether a manifestation of Vishnu according to

Buddha.

Buddha. the Shivas, or an incarnation according to the Vaishnavas, was the propagator of a system of universal scepticism, embracing not only a disbelief of all religion, but also a disregard for all virtue, and indeed for every thing except more sensual gratification. He was a false teacher and impostor, who came to deceive and to mislead, in order to destroy; not a kind and merciful being, adorned with the attributes of wisdom and benevolence, and worthy to receive all praise and worship, as some have erroneously supposed. Moreover, his appearance was for a temporary and local purpose, namely, to render Divodasa the voluntary cause of his own downfall, and thus to gratify the malice of the deities who had conceived an aversion to that virtuous potentate. But the sceptical doctrines which he disseminated in the course of his delusive manifestation became afterwards blended and intermixed with a variety of others of a totally different description; so that, although Buddhism has ever continued more or less distinct from the faith of which originally it formed the negation, it is exceedingly difficult to trace its progress, and by no means easy to ascertain its precise character at any given period of time. The rejection of the Vedas, and of the religion founded upon them, seems, however, to be common to all forms of Buddhism; and although the Brahmins nevertheless recognise Buddha as an object of worship or reverence, it is only as a manifestation of Vishnu, one of the emanations of Brahm, or the Supreme Being, and not as a false teacher and an impostor, whose object was to deceive and delude, that he is acknowledged by the sacred caste of the Hindus. By not perceiving or not attending to this distinction, all the writers on the subject whose works we have consulted have entangled themselves in the mazes of inextricable perplexity and contradiction, and thickened the darkness which they laboured to dispel. M. Guignaut, indeed, has attempted to cut the knot which he could not untie. "Bouddha ne jouit d'aucun culte dans l'Inde," says he; "ses temples, ses idoles y sont renversées ou abandonnées; une ténébreuse horreur, une ignorance feinte ou réelle, une haine non moins violente qu'irréfécible, règnent chez les Brahmanes, sur tout ce qui concerne sa doctrine." But in another part of his work (*Religions de l'Antiquité*, vol. i. p. 294), the same author admits that Buddha has not ceased to be revered by the Hindu nation; an admission wholly irreconcilable with the statement contained in the passage just quoted. This confusion of ideas, however, proceeds from incorrect notions as to the character of Buddha; for as long as he is considered merely as a manifestation of Vishnu, he is held to be an object of reverence, not as Buddha, but as the divinity who chose to appear in that form. The Hindus have never acknowledged him in any other character; and consequently all that has been written concerning him with reference to the religion of India, is wholly irrelevant, and foreign to the subject.

According to the fable, Buddha, when he had effected the apostasy of Divodasa, was prevailed upon by the Brahmins and holy men to terminate the propagation of heretical doctrines, upon which he disappeared in a deep well at Gaya, leaving neither writings nor disciples behind him; and it is further believed, upon the credit of tradition, that no Buddhists were known in India, until their sect was established by Gautama or Godama, with whom Buddha is frequently confounded. Now, in this mythic account, which is supported by a legend in the Shiva Purana, we have the true genius of Buddhism displayed. Its character throughout is essentially negative. When reduced to its elements or first principles, it consists merely of the rejection of the Vedas and of the religion founded upon them. It is not the Hindu faith; but under this designation of Buddhism there may be, and in point of fact

there has been included the most various, not to say incongruous, tenets and superstitions which it is possible to imagine; and although its negative character is every where the same, its positive character differs in different countries. Hence the Buddhism of China, allied to the institutions, laws, and maxims of Fo and Confucius, is in many respects as different from the Buddhism of the Burman empire as the latter is from the system of religion founded on the Vedas and the Shastras. But, nevertheless, it has some positive general characteristics. The principles of this sect, as established by Gautama, its founder, about five hundred years before Christ, are unknown; but those now ascribed to him, and professed as his alleged revelations, may be very briefly stated. The doctrine and law of Gautama consist chiefly in observing five commandments, and abstaining from ten sins. The five commandments contain prohibitions against killing any animal whatsoever, from the meanest insect up to man; against the commission of theft; against the violation of another man's wife or concubine; against falsehood; and against the use of wine, or any intoxicating liquor or drug, as opium; and an exemption from poverty, misfortune, and calamity is promised to those who keep these commandments during all successive transmigrations. The ten sins consist in the killing of animals, theft, adultery, falsehood, discord, contumelious language, idle and superfluous talk, covetousness, envy or malice, and the following of false gods; and he who abstains from all these sins is said to obtain Sila, while every one who observes Sila, in all successive transmigrations, becomes at last worthy of beholding a god, and of hearing his great voice, and is exempted from the four known miseries, namely, weight, old age, disease, and death. There are also certain positive good works which ought to be practised, such as Dana, which consists in giving alms, and Barana, which consists in repeating solemnly the three words Ancissa, Docha, and Anatta; the first indicating liability to vicissitude, the second exposure to misfortune, and the third the impossibility of obtaining exemption from these evils. From this statement it appears that the two scales of commandments and prohibitions are singularly ill adjusted to each other; inasmuch as the duties enjoined are only half the number of the sins forbidden, and as the negative and the positive in morals are blended in both.

The worshippers of Buddha contend with the disciples of Brahma for the honour of a high antiquity; and this pretension has been countenanced by some European writers of high reputation. Sir William Jones, for instance, fixes the first appearance of Buddhism about a thousand years before Christ; but his argument rests upon very weak grounds, and, if the Puranas are admitted to be of any authority, it is wholly untenable; for whatever antiquity may be ascribed to Buddha, considered as a manifestation of Vishnu for the purpose of local and temporary delusion, there are clearly no grounds, mythological, traditional, or historical, for placing the origin of this sect higher than the period of Gautama, or about five hundred years before Christ, as already mentioned. What we know with certainty is, that Buddhism, so called doubtless from its peculiar character, once predominated throughout a great part of India; that the doctrines and system of belief adopted by its votaries were in direct opposition to the religion founded on the Vedas; that a deadly hatred arose between the followers of Brahma and the Buddhists, which ended in the expulsion of the latter; that, nevertheless, the Brahmins continued to reverence Buddha as the manifestation of Vishnu, however much they might have detested the sect which called itself by his name; that Buddhism appears to have diffused itself over all the countries from Bengal to China inclusive; that in its character

Buddha.

Budgell, and genius it is extremely flexible and accommodating; and that, in the different countries which it overspread, it appears to have become amalgamated with indigenous local superstitions of almost every description. (See Kennedy's *Researches into the Nature and Affinity of Ancient and Hindu Mythology*, p. 248, et seq.; *Transactions of the Bombay Literary Society*, part iii. p. 532; Guignaut, *Religions de l'Antiquité*, tom. i. p. 300; Heeren, *Ideen über die Politik*, &c. vol. viii. p. 127, 4th edit; *Asiatic Researches*, vol. viii. p. 474.)

BUDGE, EUSTACE, an ingenious writer, was the son of Gilbert Budgell, doctor of divinity, and was born at St Thomas, near Exeter, about the year 1685. He was educated at Christ Church College, Oxford, from which he removed to the Inner Temple, London; but instead of studying the law, for which his father intended him, he applied to polite literature, kept company with the genteel persons in town, and in particular contracted a strict intimacy with Mr Addison, who was first cousin to his mother, and who, on his being appointed secretary to Lord Wharton, lord-lieutenant of Ireland, took Budgell with him as one of the clerks of his office. Mr Budgell, who was then about twenty years of age, and had read the classics and the works of the best English, French, and Italian authors, now became concerned with Sir Richard Steele and Mr Addison in writing the *Tatler*, as he had soon afterwards a share in writing the *Spectator*, where all the papers furnished by him are marked with an X; and when that work was completed, he had likewise a hand in the *Guardian*, where his performances are marked with an asterisk. He was subsequently made under secretary to Mr Addison, chief secretary to the lords justices of Ireland, and deputy clerk of the council. Soon afterwards he was chosen a member of the Irish parliament; and in 1717, Mr Addison, having become principal secretary of state in England, procured him the place of accountant and comptroller-general of the revenue in Ireland. But the next year, the Duke of Bolton being appointed lord-lieutenant, Mr Budgell wrote a lampoon against Mr Webster, his secretary, in which his Grace himself was not spared; and upon all occasions he treated that gentleman with the utmost contempt. This imprudent step became the primary cause of his ruin; for the Duke of Bolton, in support of his secretary, got him removed from the post of accountant-general; upon which, returning to England, he, contrary to the advice of Mr Addison, published his case in a pamphlet. Mr Addison had now resigned the seals, and retired into the country for the sake of his health; Mr Budgell had also lost several other powerful friends, who had been removed by death, particularly the Earl of Sunderland and Lord Halifax. He, however, made several attempts to succeed at court, but was constantly kept back by the Duke of Bolton. In the year 1720 he lost £20,000 by the South Sea scheme, and afterwards spent £5000 more in unsuccessful attempts to get into parliament. This completed his ruin. He at length employed himself in writing pamphlets against the ministry, and published many papers in the *Craftsman*. In 1735 he began a weekly pamphlet called the *Bee*, which he continued for above a hundred numbers, and which is printed in eight volumes 8vo. During the progress of this work occurred the death of Dr Tindal, by whose will Mr Budgell had £2000 left him; and the world being surprised at such a gift from a man entirely unrelated to him, to the exclusion of the next heir, a nephew, and the continuator of Rapin's history of England, immediately imputed it to his having made the will himself. Hence the satirist:

Let Budgell charge low Grub-street on my quill,
And write what'er he please except my will.

It was thought that he had some hand in publishing Dr

Tindal's *Christianity as old as the Creation*; for he often Budmeans talked of an additional volume on the subject, but never published it. After the cessation of the *Bee*, Mr Budgell became so involved in law-suits, that he was reduced to a very unhappy situation. He was indeed called to the bar, and attended for some time in the courts of law; but finding himself unable to make any progress, and being distressed to the utmost, he determined at length to put an end to his life. Accordingly, in the year 1736, he took a boat at Somerset-stairs, after filling his pockets with stones; ordered the waterman to shoot the bridge; and, whilst the boat was passing under, threw himself into the river. He had several days before been visibly distracted in his mind. Upon his bureau was found a slip of paper, on which were these words:

What Cato did, and Addison approv'd,
Cannot be wrong.

Besides the above works, he wrote a Translation of the Characters of Theophrastus. He was never married, but left one natural daughter, who afterwards assumed his name, and became an actress in Drury-lane.

BUDNEANS, in *Eccelesiastical History*, so called from the name of their leader, Simon Budneus. They not only denied all kind of religious worship to Jesus Christ, but asserted that he was not begotten by any extraordinary act of divine power, being born like other men, in a natural way. Budneus was deposed from his ministerial functions in the year 1584, and publicly excommunicated, with all his disciples; but afterwards abandoning his peculiar sentiments, he was re-admitted to the communion of the Socinian sect. Crellius ascribes the origin of the above opinion to Adam Neuser.

BUDUN, the name of one of the Ceylonese gods. He is supposed to have arrived at supremacy after successive transmigrations from the lowest state of an insect through the various species of living animals. There have been three deities of this name, each of which is supposed to have reigned as long as a bird takes to remove a hill of sand half a mile high and six miles round, by a single grain in a thousand years.

BUDWEIS, a circle in the Austrian kingdom of Bohemia. It extends over 814 square miles, or 520,960 acres. It is situated in the southernmost part of the kingdom, joining to Bavaria. It comprehends eight cities, twenty-nine market-towns, 891 villages, and 26,985 houses. The inhabitants in 1817 were 170,670, but have since been increasing as in the other parts of the territory. The chief city bears the same name, and is situated on the river Moldau, where it receives the waters of the Malsch. It is a well built ancient place, with a cathedral, several other churches, a monastery, and an institution for military education. It has manufactures of cloth, and for refining saltpetre. The population amounts to somewhat more than 6000. It is in Long. 14. 51. 10. E. Lat. 48. 59. 43. N.

BUDZIAC TARTARY lies on the rivers Dniester, Bog, and Dnieper, having Poland and Russia on the north, Little Tartary on the east, the Black Sea on the south, and Bessarabia on the west. The chief town is Oczakow. It is subject to Turkey.

BUENAIRE, one of the Leeward Islands, in the West Indies, lying east of Curacao, and belonging to the Dutch. It is fifty miles in circumference, is mountainous in its appearance, and inhabited chiefly by Indians, with a small mixture of Europeans. It produces nothing but a few cattle, goats, large quantities of poultry, and of late years a considerable quantity of salt. On the south-west side there is a good harbour. It is fifty-two miles east of Curacao. Long. 67. 36. W. Lat. 12. 26. N.

BUENAVENTURA, a Spanish settlement and mission

Buenos
Ayres.

on the coast of New California. Vancouver mentions that the buildings of the mission, the arrangements of the gardens, and the cultivation of the land in the immediate vicinity, are in a style superior to that of any of the settlements in the north. In consequence of the serene weather which prevails here throughout most of the year, the roadstead may be considered as a tolerably good one, and anchorage may be had near the shore. But it is much

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Ayres.

exposed to the north-east winds and oceanic swells, which render the communication with the shore very unpleasant. There is a want of rain here, which is rather unfavourable to the raising of European grain; but the soil and climate answer remarkably well for the production of all sorts of fruits appertaining both to the temperate and torrid zones. This settlement was founded in 1782, and contains above 1000 inhabitants. Long. 241. 2. E. Lat. 34. 16. N.

BUENOS AYRES,

THE capital of the Argentine republic or united provinces of the Rio de la Plata, is situated in the province of Buenos Ayres, on the southern margin of the river Plata, in South America. This province is bounded on the north by the province of Santo Fè and the rivers Parana and La Plata, on the east by the La Plata and the Atlantic Ocean, on the west by the province of Santa Fè and the Indian territory, and on the south by the country of the Indians. This latter boundary, previous to 1822, was formed by the river Salado. The greatest diameter of the province, then consisting of about 200 miles, extended from the mouth of the Salado, at the bay of Samborombon, in south latitude 36°, in a north-westerly direction, to the Arroyo en Medio, which separates it from Santa Fè, in south latitude 33. 20.; the breadth of the province was estimated at about 70 miles; and the area included about 1518 square leagues.

In 1740 an imaginary line was drawn across the continent, in about 35° of south latitude, to the south of which the Indians were understood to confine themselves, and various forts were constructed for the defence of this frontier; but these limits appear to have been little respected by either party, since the Indians have been in the frequent practice of making incursions into the frontier provinces, and plundering their inhabitants, or interrupting the commercial intercourse maintained between the capital and the interior provinces situated along the eastern base of the Andes. The inhabitants of the provinces, and especially those of Buenos Ayres, have been gradually extending their *estancias* or breeding farms into the territory of the Indians south of the river Salado, and more especially on the sea-coast of the Atlantic. To render these possessions more secure, and to extend the jurisdiction of the government of Buenos Ayres, an attempt was made in 1822 to obtain, by purchase from the Indians, the cession of an extensive tract of land situated to the south of the Salado. The principal Indian caciques having assembled to meet the commissioner from the government of Buenos Ayres, consented to sell their lands, but were so exorbitant in their demands that the negotiation failed, partly through the influence exercised by those tribes residing near the Andes and in Chili, who were less immediately interested in the sale of these lands. The failure of these laudable endeavours to accomplish this object by amicable means has led to consequences injurious not only to the Indians, but to the industrious inhabitants of the province of Buenos Ayres. Both parties have had recourse to arms. The Indians have made repeated irruptions into the possessions of the latter, carrying off great quantities of cattle, and committing other atrocities. The government of Buenos Ayres, on the other hand, has sent various expeditions into their country; built fortresses; and established military posts at Laguna Blanca, Cruz de Guerra, Federación, and other places, on an advanced frontier, extending nearly to the 38th degree of south latitude, and formed in part by the insulated ranges of mountains known by the names of Las Sierras del Volcan, del Tandil, and de la Ven-

tana. Along the coast of the Atlantic they possess establishments still farther to the south; the foundation of a new city, called New Buenos Ayres, was laid in 1827, in an eligible situation to the north of the mouth of the river Colorado, which enters the Atlantic in latitude 39. 40. S.; and they have long possessed a fortress and agricultural settlement near the mouth of the Rio Negro de Patagones, called El Carmen de Patagones, with which Buenos Ayres has hitherto communicated only by sea; but measures have been taken to establish a more direct communication by land with these dependencies. It is evidently the intention of the government of Buenos Ayres to extend their frontiers to one or other of these rivers; an undertaking of great importance, as it will not only afford protection to the numerous industrious settlers established to the south of Buenos Ayres, by forming a defensible and well-defined frontier, but will open up an extensive line of water communication with the interior, and facilitate the conveyance of the valuable agricultural products of the fertile provinces which extend along the eastern base of the Andes.

This extensive territory, south of the river Salado, which has in this manner been added to the province of Buenos Ayres, possesses a fine climate and very fertile soil. It is considered as still better adapted for agricultural purposes than that around Buenos Ayres, especially for the cultivation of wheat, which is produced there in great abundance, and with more certainty than at the latter place. The number of *estancias* already formed in this territory is very considerable, having reached the Sierras del Volcan and Tandil, and they are yearly augmenting in number and importance; only requiring the fostering care of a paternal government, and protection from the incursions of the Indians, to insure their prosperity. Now that the civil dissensions have terminated, it is expected that the inhabitants of the provinces which are in contact with the Indian territory to the south will unite in the important undertaking of forming a well-arranged frontier, connected by fortifications; previously obtaining the consent of the Indians by purchase and other conciliatory means, before having recourse to the force of arms.

The whole extent of the province of Buenos Ayres forms one continuous and unbroken plain, of great fertility, country, and covered with perpetual verdure. Proceeding from the city upwards along the margin of the river Plata, the ground is somewhat more elevated than the surrounding country; but to the westward the same level surface extends across the Pampas, until it reaches the confines of the province of Cordova, where the country gradually rises in elevation as it approaches the base of the mountainous range of Cordova. To the south and south-east the country presents the same monotonous appearance, unless where interrupted by some inconsiderable elevations near the origin of the river Salado, and farther south by the insulated range of mountains already mentioned, called Tandil, Volcan, and La Ventana.

Throughout this territory, especially towards the south, and in the vicinity of the river Salado, there is a consi-

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derable number of lakes, to many of which river forms an outlet. Some of these are very shallow, and are only filled with water during the rainy season, at which times also considerable tracts of country become so much inundated that they cannot be passed except on horseback. On the approach of summer, and when exposed to the powerful influence of the sun, the evaporation is so great that these inundations and many of the lakes disappear, leaving the country in a very dry and parched condition, and very deficient in the necessary supplies of water.

To this great equality of surface may be attributed the very few rivers, even of moderate size, which are to be found in such an extent of country. They are in general easily forded, unless when swelled by long-continued rains. The small river called Riachuelo, or the Narrow River, which joins the river Plata about a mile to the south of the city of Buenos Ayres, affords a good example of their size. Near its mouth it is not above thirty yards in breadth, and has a depth of water not exceeding two fathoms; consequently it does not admit even moderate-sized vessels, but affords an excellent haven for small vessels and lighters, employed in the landing of goods and the embarkation of produce.

The Rio Salado, which is the largest of these rivers, rises on the confines of the Pampas to the south of the fort of Melincue; runs in a south-easterly direction, being connected in its course with a considerable number of lakes; and enters the Atlantic at the Ensenada de Samborombon, near the mouth of the river Plata. At twelve leagues from its mouth it is about 600 feet in breadth, and so deep that passengers require to be ferried over. The importance of this river was unknown until the late war with the Brazils, when, in consequence of the strict blockade of the port of Buenos Ayres by the Brazilian squadron, all access to the country by the ordinary channels was cut off. The inhabitants were compelled by necessity to find out other avenues by which to communicate with the sea; and as, on examination, the mouth of the river Salado was found to be well adapted for the admission of shipping, it became during the war the principal rendezvous for the Argentine privateers, their prizes, and other vessels; a circumstance which for a time gave a new aspect to that part of the country. But much inconvenience was experienced in carrying on the traffic thus created, from the want of good roads. The discovery of so good a port for small vessels at the entrance of the river Plata will, however, prove of importance to this part of the country, where the population has been augmented, and greater advances have been made in agricultural industry, for which the district in question is peculiarly well adapted. A number of small rivers rise in the hilly country near the Sierras del Volcan and Tandil, and run into the Atlantic.

The Ensenada de Barragan, distant about thirty-six miles to the south-east of Buenos Ayres, forms a safe and commodious anchorage for shipping, which is well protected from the prevailing winds; but it is not much frequented except by vessels engaged in the mule trade, or requiring to be careened. The province contains various thriving and populous towns and villages, among which may be enumerated San Jose de Flores, San Isidro, Quilmes, Las Conchas, Luxan, Cluscomus, San Pedro, San Nicolas de los Arroyos, and others. The latter, San Nicolas, which is situated at the north-western extremity of the province, on the margin of the river Parana, is likely to become a commercial station of much importance, from its vicinity to the Rio Tercero, and its favourable position for communication with the provinces of Cordova and of Cuyo.

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tion.

The level surface which so uniformly characterizes the whole province of Buenos Ayres affords little scope for variety in its vegetable productions; still the aspect of the country is marked by many striking peculiarities. Different kinds of clover and other leguminous plants, intermixed with grasses, constitute the great mass of the vegetation; give to the country its verdant appearance; and form an inexhaustible source of nutriment, not only to the deer and other wild animals which are so abundant, but to the numerous herds of cattle and horses which may be seen grazing in all directions.

The country is naturally destitute of wood, and, with the exception of an occasional natural copse of the *tala* shrub, of very inconsiderable height, nothing resembling trees is to be seen. The ombu (*Phytolacca dioica*), however, sometimes makes its appearance, to diversify the scene and relieve its monotony. Trees of this kind generally point out to the traveller the site of some habitation, near which they are usually planted; since, from the great rapidity of their growth, they soon become conspicuous at a distance, and afford a grateful shade to the inhabitants during the hot season of the year. They are otherwise very useless, on account of the spongy nature of the trunk, which is so soft that it has sometimes been used as wadding for artillery during the wars which prevailed in the country.

In the more cultivated districts of the province, and especially in the neighbourhood of the city, numerous plantations are met with of peach trees, which are cultivated for fire-wood, and form a very profitable investment of land and capital, as they grow with great luxuriance, and may be cut down every four years; so that by dividing a plantation equally, a fourth part may be cut down yearly, which is sure to meet with a ready sale, being the principal fire-wood used in Buenos Ayres. The fruit, which is produced in great abundance in such plantations, is applied to no useful purpose except the feeding of pigs and poultry.

The immense forests of thistles which spring up at certain seasons of the year tend more to diversify the scenery of this country than any other cause. These consist of two species, well known in Europe, but principally of the cardoon (*Cynara Cardunculus*), and have both in all probability been introduced from Europe. Having met with a soil and climate congenial to their nature, they have extended themselves over an immense tract of country, in some directions upwards of one hundred miles; and they are in such abundance, and so vigorous in their growth, as to exceed in height the tallest man mounted on horseback, and to form an apparently impenetrable thicket on each side of the road. This scene may be witnessed in its greatest perfection during the early months of summer, more especially in November; and contrasted with the same country during the winter season, when the whole has disappeared from the surface of the earth, it conveys to the mind a striking instance of the luxuriant vegetation of the country. When young and tender, these thistles constitute a favourite article of food for cattle, which form numerous and devious paths in the thickets when in search of food at a later period of the season. Along these they are easily traced by the practised eye of the gaucho, who fearlessly rides along, his body and limbs being protected from injury by means of a portion of dried bullock's hide, judiciously placed before him, and extending a little way on each side of the horse. These thickets have on some occasions been used as a place of concealment by such as lay in wait to attack the unwary traveller, and have occasionally been employed in aid of military operations during the civil dissensions which have so frequently prevailed in these countries since their separa-

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tion from the dominion of Spain. In autumn the same scenery assumes a desolate appearance, as the thistles are then withered and drooping, and become so dry, that if by any accident they catch fire, and a breeze of wind prevails, the conflagration spreads with such rapidity in all directions as occasionally to destroy much agricultural produce, and great numbers of cattle and other animals who are unable to escape. In the neighbourhood of the city at this season they are cut down in great quantities, and sold for the purpose of heating ovens. The forests of this thistle are in common use in the country for the purpose of coagulating milk, which they accomplish in the same manner as rennet. A quantity of these forests is tied up in a rag and stirred about in warm milk for a few minutes. This thistle is also used as a vegetable at table. The tender footstalks of the leaves, and the young stems, when boiled and the outer skin removed, have the flavour of artichokes.

Animals.

Deer are so abundant in those parts of the country which are least inhabited, that some hundreds may occasionally be seen at the same time along the horizon; but they are not much molested, as their flesh is of little value in a country where good beef is so abundant. The *bicachos* are very numerous in the province of Buenos Ayres. This animal resembles a rabbit in appearance and habit, but is somewhat larger. *Bicachos* burrow in the ground, and have numerous openings to their subterranean abodes, where they remain concealed during the day-time; but they sally out at night and devour great quantities of grass, corn, and green crops. Their holes, which are numerous, and covered over with grass and herbage, are dangerous to those riding on horseback, and occasionally give rise to accidents. They may be seen in considerable numbers at the mouths of their holes about sunset, and are caught in traps, or by inundating their dwellings, which obliges them to issue out, when they are easily killed. Their flesh is considered as good eating. Various species of armadillos are found in the provinces, where they are distinguished by the names of *quirquincho*, *mataco*, and *mulito*. They are easily caught when found sleeping in the sun, and are much prized as an article of food when roasted in their shell. The *zorrito*, which is not infrequently met with, is about the size of a rabbit, of a chestnut colour, and marked on each side by two white lines. Its appearance is handsome, but when attacked or molested it ejects with considerable force a liquid possessing an odour so intolerable, that its vicinity is dreaded by man, and every animal who has once experienced its effects. This serves it as a powerful means of defence against every enemy. If caught and suspended by the tail, it is deprived of the power of emitting this fluid, which is contained in a bag at the root of the tail.

The South American ostrich or *mandu* (*Struthio Rhea*) is met with in considerable abundance on the Pampas, usually in coveys of twenty or thirty in number, gliding rapidly along the plain. These birds are hunted by the natives on horseback at full speed, and are caught by means of the *bolas*, formed of three balls or round stones, covered with hide, and united to one common centre by thongs, each a fathom in length. After acquiring an impetus by whirling them round the head, the *gouschos* throw them with such dexterity that the bird seldom escapes. The young are easily domesticated, but become troublesome from their propensity to swallow money, or any thing metallic which they can find. Their food in the natural state consists of seeds, herbs, and insects. When young, their flesh is considered as palatable. They lay a number of eggs in one nest, which is lined with dry grass, and not always in very concealed situations. They seem to have an exact knowledge of the number of their eggs, as any attempt to diminish or increase their number, or even to handle them, inevitably

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leads to the destruction of the whole, and the desertion of the nest. As a proof of their provident care for their young brood, it is affirmed that the parents roll several eggs to a little distance from their nest, and break the shell, so that they become filled with maggots and insects, which supply suitable food for their young brood on coming forth. The male bird takes charge of rearing the young brood, which he performs with great attention. When two male ostriches thus employed meet each other, they fight for the supremacy, the victor in the combat usually carrying off the two broods.

The country abounds in game of various descriptions, especially wild ducks, pigeons, partridges, and quails: the latter are so stupid as to allow themselves to be caught with little trouble, by means of a noose fastened to the end of a cane; or by riding round them in the form of a circle, they may be gradually approached so close as to be killed by the stroke of the rider's whip. They are exceedingly abundant, and being easily caught, are much used as an article of food. On the banks of the rivers and lakes are found great abundance of water-fowl; and in moist places a bird closely resembling the lapwing of Europe in appearance and habit, but having a spine of nearly an inch long projecting forward from each shoulder, and serving it as a powerful weapon of offence. Venomous reptiles are rarely or never met with in this province; and the inhabitants are exempt from the annoyance of those numerous insects which abound so much in the provinces farther to the north. Mosquitos, however, occasionally occur at certain seasons of the year, and in low damp situations. Fleas are also abundant where sufficient attention has not been paid to ventilation and cleanliness.

Bones of the megatherion, and other extinct animals, Fossil have been discovered in the alluvial soil of the province remains of Buenos Ayres. One of the most perfect specimens of the bones of this animal was found on the banks of the river Luxan, fifteen leagues from Buenos Ayres, when forming some excavations, in the year 1789. It was removed entire to Spain, and is now in the cabinet at Madrid. More recently a tooth of the same animal was discovered near Areco, about sixteen leagues farther west; and only a few years ago various bones of a similar description were found near Los Desmochedos, on the south side of the river Tercero. Three skeletons of the mastodon were recently discovered to the south of the river Salado, by Mr Woodbine Parish, his Britannic majesty's late consul-general at Buenos Ayres; and one of these skeletons, in nearly a complete state, has lately been brought to England by that gentleman. The circumstance of these organic remains having been found in a shell somewhat resembling that of the tortoise, gives much additional interest to this discovery. Occurrences such as these lead to the conclusion that in former times these tribes of animals have existed in considerable numbers on these alluvial plains; and many similar discoveries may be anticipated in future.

The mineral productions of this country possess very little interest. A rock or a stone is scarcely anywhere to be seen throughout the province. Some gypsum has been found in the neighbourhood of Buenos Ayres, and lime in several parts of the country. Such stones as are required for paving the streets, or in building, are brought from the island of Martín García, at the mouth of the Uruguay, or as ballast from Europe. Many of the lakes to the south of Buenos Ayres are strongly impregnated with salt, and hence is derived the name and quality of the water of the river Salado. Salt, however, exists in greatest abundance and purity at Las Lagunas de las Salinas, situated in lat. 37. 0. S. in a south-west direction from the city, and not

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far distant from the mountains called La Sierra de la Ventana. At these lakes, when the evaporation has been considerable, salt is procured in great quantities; and to obtain supplies of this article, considerable numbers of Indians and Creoles are attracted at certain periods; but owing to the distance and expense of land-carriage, little

of it reaches Buenos Ayres, as it can be obtained cheaper from England, and of a superior quality.

The climate of Buenos Ayres, as its name indicates, is excellent and salubrious, being by its situation equally removed from the extremes of heat and cold. In general, the atmosphere is clear and the sky unclouded.

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Climate.

Meteorological Observations in Buenos Ayres during 1822.

1822.	Thermometer.			Barometer.			Hygrometer.		Winds.				Weather.			
	Max.	Mean.	Min.	Max.	Mean.	Min.	Days Humid.	Days Dry.	North to East.	North to West.	South to East.	South to West.	Clear.	Foggy.	Rainy.	Thunder and Lightning.
January.....	91	71-82	60						12	3	9	6	14	4	13	3
February.....	89	73-80	58	30-04	29-58	29-21	19	9	12	8	3	5	16	4	8	0
March.....	82	70-83	53	29-88	29-61	29-33	20	10	12	6	6	7	23	4	4	1
April.....	78	62-04	43	29-82	29-73	29-46	22	8	7	8	4	11	24	4	9	0
May.....	68	59-31	44	30-18	29-76	29-31	30	0	13	7	2	9	24	4	3	2
June.....	66	54-32	40	30-05	29-77	29-23	30	0	14	3	2	9	16	11	3	3
July.....	68	52-55	38	30-17	29-65	29-21	31	0	13	4	7	7	14	11	6	5
August.....	66	51-83	36	30-21	29-84	29-51	31	0	18	3	6	4	16	13	2	0
September.....	72	54-04	42	30-41	29-74	29-32	30	0	13	3	11	3	16	6	8	3
October.....	81	58-91	46	30-13	29-67	29-34	30	1	17	5	5	4	15	8	8	3
November.....	88	68-43	56	29-91	29-61	29-17	28	2	23	1	5	1	16	7	9	3
December.....	86	70-94	62	30-00	29-45	29-15	23	8	16	3	6	6	15	4	12	5
	294	38					170	56	66	72	209	80	85	28		

The preceding table indicates the state of the weather during the year 1822, and is given as the most complete which can be obtained, although it does not denote the extremes of heat and cold which occasionally take place during other years, and appears to have included a greater proportion of rainy days than usually occur. In January 1823 the thermometer rose as high as 94°, and in February and March following to 93°; and during the winter months of 1820 it often fell to the freezing point, and thin crusts of ice were formed on the shallow pools around the city. The mean temperature of 1822 was 62°-30 of Fahrenheit, and the mean height of the barometer for eleven months 29-67 inches, showing the elevation of the city above the level of the sea to be about 300 feet. The north and north-east winds, especially the former, which sweep over the low and wooded country of Entre Rios and the other districts extending along the margins of the rivers Parana, Uruguay, and their tributaries, are generally loaded with moisture, and succeeded by heavy rains. When the winds have prevailed for some time, and before the rains fall, the atmosphere generally becomes so clear and transparent that objects may be seen distinctly at a great distance. During its continuance the moisture of the atmosphere materially affects the health and feelings of the inhabitants. The *pampas*, or south-west winds, which traverse a comparatively dry tract of country, are by far the most agreeable and wholesome which prevail in this country; and from this quarter the winds sometimes blow with very great violence. During the summer months a refreshing breeze arises periodically every evening from the river to the eastward, and is evidently produced by causes similar to those which operate in equatorial regions. Storms of thunder and lightning occasionally prevail at Buenos Ayres, and are sometimes very violent and terrific. A remarkable change, indeed, has of late taken place in the climate of Buenos Ayres, for since 1820 it has rained so very little as materially to disappoint the hopes of the husbandman and the breeder of cattle. In the early part of 1832 the drought had reached to such a height as to convert the whole province into one continued bleak and dreary desert, and to produce phenomena

which had never before been witnessed even by the oldest inhabitants. On some recent occasions such dense clouds of dust have been raised by the winds, as to obscure the rays of the sun completely at mid-day, and envelope the inhabitants in almost total darkness. When the rains at length commenced in March, the water in its passage through the air intermingled so completely with the dust suspended in the clouds through which it fell, as to descend in the form of showers of mud, and on some occasions gave to the white exterior of the houses the appearance of having been plastered over with earth. Many flocks of sheep were smothered on these occasions by the dust, in a similar manner as in the snow-storms which occur in the mountains of Scotland.

As an evidence of the healthiness of this climate may be adduced the frequent instances of longevity which occur. Epidemic diseases are of rare occurrence, and there are few complaints arising from local causes. Consumption, pulmonary affections, and inflammatory complaints, are those which principally prevail. In the country the inhabitants enjoy almost uninterrupted good health. The ravages of small-pox, formerly very destructive in this country, have been arrested by the introduction of vaccination, for which an institution has been established under the direction of Dr Seguro, whose exertions in the cause of humanity are well known and appreciated by his countrymen. The benefits of this institution have been widely extended all over these provinces, and vaccination has been introduced to a considerable extent among the Indians to the south.

The city of Buenos Ayres, or, as it was formerly called, City. Nuestra Señora de Buenos Ayres, was founded in 1335, by Don Pedro de Mendoza, and so named in consequence of the great salubrity and purity of the air. It is situated on the southern margin of the river Plata, on a rising ground elevated about thirty-five feet above the surface of the river, and in long. 58. 23. 34. W. and lat. 34. 36. 29. S. from Greenwich. It is distant ten leagues from Colonia, situated on the Banda Oriental, at the opposite side of the river, and seventy-two leagues from Cape Santa Maria, at the mouth of the river Plata.

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The city is seen to advantage from the river, its site being somewhat more elevated than the surrounding country. It occupies a considerable extent of ground, being in its longest diameter, which runs parallel with the river, about two miles, and in breadth about a mile and a half. All the streets cross at right angles, and at regular intervals of about 150 yards from each other; and they are of moderate breadth, with pavement on each side, and hollow in the middle. They were formerly very ill kept, and with numerous *pasos* or quagmires, especially near the outskirts of the town; but since the establishment of an efficient and well-regulated police in 1821, these defects have in a great measure been removed, and the streets well cleaned. Most of the principal streets have been well paved and lighted. They have all been systematically named, and the houses are regularly numbered. A street patrol has been formed, whose duty it is to repress irregularities, which were formerly so frequent, and to preserve order and tranquillity. It is only in the more central parts of the city that the houses are built adjoining to each other, so that the four sides of the square form a continuous line of houses, no access being obtained to the interior of the square excepting through the houses. Formerly they were almost all flat roofed, with a parapet before and behind, and afforded, by means of these *azoteas*, a ready communication between the inhabitants of the square, without their persons being exposed to the view of those passing along the streets. From this circumstance originated that singular and efficient mode of defensive warfare which was first practised in Buenos Ayres, and has recently developed itself so successfully in Europe; every successive square of buildings thus forming a formidable line of defence to the entrance of an invading force, and the defenders being able to take aim at the assailants with little exposure of their bodies. Hence the very unequal contest, and the great loss of life, which attended the attempt of the British troops under General Whitelocke to take the city by storm. More recently the form of the houses has been somewhat altered, by the addition of *altos* or upper stories, balconies, and various other architectural improvements. The houses were formerly all built of mud; but one of the Jesuits introduced the practice of employing bricks and lime, which is now generally in use, excepting in the houses of the lower classes towards the outskirts of the city. The walls formed of brick and lime are plastered outside with stucco or cement, and whitened.

The entrance to every house is by a large massive gate, which leads to a square court or *patio*, round which are situated the various apartments with which it communicates. It is usually paved with brick, and has generally formed underneath a large cistern or *aljibe*, in which the rain water is collected from the court and tops of the houses, and preserved for the use of the family. The sides of the court and front of the balconies are frequently ornamented with vines or other climbing and odoriferous plants. The air plants (*Tillandsias*), of which several very beautiful kinds are natives of this country, are also used to ornament dwelling-houses; and when in flower they have a very brilliant appearance, and excite additional interest from the peculiarities of their nature, requiring no other nourishment than what they receive from the atmosphere, and demanding no further care than that of attaching them to the iron railings of the windows.

That part of the house which is situated on each side of the entrance is commonly used for shops or warehouses, and those apartments communicating with the court as public rooms, the bed rooms being situated in the *altos*, or around a second court or *patio*, to which there is a passage leading from the first. Beyond these are situated

the servants' apartments, the kitchen, offices, stable, and sometimes a small garden.

The windows, which look into the court or the street, are large, occupying nearly the whole height of the apartment, and are secured from intrusion by perpendicular bars of iron, fitted in a frame so as to occupy its whole extent; a precaution necessary to secure the interior of the houses, as it is customary to throw open the casements to admit the cool air of the mornings and evenings; while the seats inside form the usual resort of the female inmates during their hours of relaxation, and when disposed to see and be seen by those passing along.

The interior of the houses is much better calculated for the warm season of summer than for the winter. The apartments are large and spacious, but somewhat gloomy, from the deficiency of windows and ornaments, the walls being generally white-washed; while the floors are formed of tiles, bricks, or more recently of wood. They are damp and cold in winter, from the defective ventilation and the want of chimneys, against which strong prejudices long existed. The only substitute used was a large *braser* or chafing-dish, of a circular form, placed in a wooden frame on the floor, and filled with burning charcoal, round which the inmates assembled; but unless the doors were kept a little open to allow the escape of the noxious air which was generated, it proved most injurious to the health of those exposed to its influence. The example of the English, who introduced chimneys into their houses, and the superior comfort and healthiness which they enjoy in consequence, has materially tended to remove the existing prejudices; and consequently the houses of the natives are now also, for the most part, provided with chimneys. The interior arrangement of their houses has also been greatly improved in other respects; and they are now commonly furnished in the English or French style, and in every respect are more comfortable than formerly.

There are about ten public squares or *plazas* in the city of Buenos Ayres, some of which are of small dimensions, and principally in use as market-places. The largest, which is of considerable size, is situated opposite to the fort, and is divided into two unequal parts by the *Alcora*, a long building extending from one side to the other, and containing a range of small shops, with a corridor on each side, affording shelter to the public and the market people. That part of the square which is next to the fort is used as the principal public market. The other division, which is by far the largest, and is named Plaza de la Victoria, forms the principal parade for exercising troops, and for the celebration of religious and national festivals. In its centre is placed a pyramid to commemorate the revolution, having an emblematic figure at each of its four corners, indicative of Justice, Science, Liberty, and America, the whole being inclosed by a light railing. On the west side of the plaza, opposite to the *Alcora*, is situated the town-house or *Cabildo*, a large and fine edifice, in which are held the different courts of justice, the meetings of the municipality, the police establishment, and the various offices belonging to these departments.

The cathedral is situated on the south side of the plaza, and, although not finished according to the original design, it occupies an extensive space of ground. It possesses considerable claims to architectural beauty, and its interior is adorned with some large scriptural paintings. The other churches, which principally merit attention for their architecture and extent, are those of San Francisco, La Merced, Santo Domingo, and San Nicolas; besides which there are various churches, in all about fifteen, throughout the city. The university, which is situated in the vicinity of the principal square, was built by and for the use of the Jesuits when established in the country, and is one of the

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most substantial public buildings in the city. Within these few years an episcopal chapel has been built by the British residents, forming a new and interesting object in this part of the world.

The theatre, which is much frequented both by natives and foreigners, is of mean exterior appearance, but of considerable size. Besides the Spanish plays and farces performed here, there are frequent Italian operas, which are generally well represented, and seen very congenial to the public taste. A mint has been recently formed in Buenos Ayres, and is situated in the *Consulado*, near the plaza. The machinery has been erected under the able superintendence of Mr Miers, and is so complete in all its details as to be highly creditable to all concerned. The political state of this country since its completion has, however, been such as to prevent this establishment from being used for its original purposes.

The post-office is under the charge of a director, and is managed with regularity, but is very defective in some of its details. The mails are conveyed by riders on horseback, and with considerable dispatch and regularity; being sent weekly to Chili by way of San Luis and Mendoza, and to Bolivia by the route of Cordova, Tucuman, and Salta. On the arrival of letters from any place, a list is made out of the whole; and any one applying for the letters receives them on paying the postage; a practice which often leads to the loss of letters, and offers numerous inconveniences.

The fort, which is opposite the *Alcoba*, is situated on the banks of the river Plata, and in front of the centre of the city. It is built of stone, and is of considerable strength, being well mounted with cannon, but can never be of much importance as a fortification, since no vessel of war can approach within gunshot of it; and the cannon are therefore only useful for firing salutes. It has a small garrison, and contains apartments for the president and his ministers, and the various public offices connected with the government.

In the neighbourhood of the fort there was recently a pier or wharf, used for landing passengers. It was built of stone and earth, the former brought from Martin Garcia, and cost the Spanish government half a million of dollars; but it was of so little use even in landing from boats, except when the river was full, that it has been allowed to fall into decay, and has now almost wholly disappeared. The usual mode of landing goods and passengers is by carts with high wheels, which are in constant attendance; and sometimes, when the river is low, they have to proceed a quarter of a mile into the water before reaching the boat, owing to the shallowness of the river.

The level space which intervenes between the margin of the river and the more elevated ground on which the city is placed, rises very little above the level of the river. At the end nearest the fort is situated the *Alameda*, or public promenade, along which are planted rows of Lombardy poplars. To this place the citizens resort in the evenings and on holidays; but, as a place of recreation, it is very inadequate to the wants of so large and populous a city. Various improvements are now, however, in progress, and a subscription has been raised by the inhabitants to inclose the whole with a handsome iron railing.

The banks of the river to a considerable extent, where they are covered with green sward, are usually occupied by females employed in washing and drying their clothes; and numerous parties of bathers may be seen during the summer months enjoying the refreshing influence of the waters of the river. The further extremity of this track often presents a busy and animated scene, being the resort, on their arrival and departure, of the numerous troops of waggons which carry on the traffic with the interior provinces. On the rising ground in this neigh-

bourhood is situated the British Protestant cemetery. Proceeding to the south-east along the margin of the river, the Riachuelo presents itself, having a circular basin at its mouth, in which are received small vessels and lighters; and in its neighbourhood are situated the *Saladeros*, and other establishments for slaughtering cattle, and preparing for exportation the various productions of the country. Before reaching this rivulet, the elevated bank on which the city stands has terminated.

The markets are abundantly supplied with provisions. Markets, such as beef, mutton, pork, poultry, and game of various kinds, and so moderate in price, that excellent beef and mutton may be purchased at one halfpenny per pound; and pork, veal, and lamb, at from one penny to three halfpence per pound. Fish are also obtained in great abundance, at a moderate price and of good quality. They are necessarily all fresh-water fish, and consist principally of the *pecerey* or king's fish, the *dorado*, the *bagre*, *liau*, and a variety of others. Vegetables are good and plentiful, but expensive, excepting pumpkins and Indian corn, both of which are cheap, and much used for culinary purposes. Fruit, with some exceptions, is not obtained in such variety, or of so good a quality, as the climate is calculated to produce if its cultivation were more carefully attended to. Melons, musk-melons, *sandias* or water-melons, oranges, lemons, figs, pomegranates, and quinces, are the best and most abundant. Peaches are in immense abundance, but of inferior quality, as their cultivation is but little attended to. Potatoes do not seem to thrive in so tenacious a soil, and are often imported from England. All the vegetables and fruit produced here, with few exceptions, appear very susceptible of improvement, and many additional kinds will be introduced as industry advances. The vine answers very well, but has hitherto been cultivated only in gardens to a very limited extent. Milk is carried about in jars by boys on horseback, and is expensive, considering the abundance and cheapness of cows; but the dairy has been little attended to in this country, excepting by the foreigners settled there, who almost monopolize the manufacture of butter and cheese, which they sell at high prices. Bread is also an expensive article of consumption.

Water for culinary and domestic purposes forms an expensive article of housekeeping, as every family which has not in the house a cistern of rain water is obliged to purchase water from the river Plata, bringing in carts to all parts of the city, and sold at about threepence a barrel of four gallons. The carts formerly employed for this purpose were of a large and clumsy construction, but they have been greatly improved of late by the foreigners settled there, some of whom have engaged in this lucrative occupation. The water obtained in this country from wells, which are necessarily very deep, is of an inferior quality, and unfit for washing or other domestic purposes, in consequence of being impregnated with saline or calcareous matter from the subsoil or *toaca*; consequently a plentiful supply of good water is a great desideratum in this city. An attempt was made in 1824 to obtain supplies of this necessary article by boring, and an engineer was brought from England with the requisite machinery for this purpose. It was tried principally at the *Retiro*, the most elevated ground in the vicinity of the city; but after penetrating a hundred and seventy-five feet into the earth, and expending considerable sums of money, the undertaking was abandoned, because, much to the disappointment of the government and the inhabitants, no water had been obtained. It does not, however, appear so very difficult an undertaking to obtain a plentiful supply of excellent water from the river, which is only distant a few hundred yards from the *Retiro*, where a large reservoir might be formed, and the city supplied by means of pipes

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Buenos Ayres. from this source. The water might be conveyed by a canal or tunnel to the base of the *Retiro*, which is not forty feet above it in level, and raised by means of machinery similar to that which is employed in mines for emptying them of water.

Fuel is also an expensive article of consumption in Buenos Ayres, the coal used there being brought from England, and fire-wood from Entre Rios and the islands of the Parana and Uruguay. Considerable supplies, however, are furnished by means of the peach trees, which are cultivated very generally in the neighbourhood.

River Plata.

All vessels coming to Buenos Ayres, excepting those of a small draught of water, usually anchor in the outer roads, distant about eight or nine miles from the shore, where there is upwards of three fathoms of water. In this situation they usually embark and disembark their cargoes by means of lighters; but when unloaded and waiting for cargoes, they generally come into the inner roads, distant only about two miles from the shore, where the water is much shallower. In neither of these situations are they well protected from the storms blowing from the eastward; but the most violent winds which prevail here are the *pamperos* from the westward, and during these the shipping is sufficiently sheltered by the land.

The river Plata throughout its whole extent, as if to compensate for its great breadth, is extremely shallow, and requires very careful navigation even for vessels of moderate size. The direction of the winds, when strong or long continued, very much influences the quantity of water contained in the river: thus, when they blow from the eastward up the river, the flow of the water downwards is so much impeded, that it accumulates greatly, and the level rises. A remarkable instance of this occurred in 1820, when, during a violent gale of wind from the east, which drove upwards of twenty vessels on shore, the tract of land situated along the margin of the river was overflowed and covered with the cargoes and remains of the wrecked vessels. On the contrary, after long-continued and violent *pamperos* or westerly winds, the flow of the waters of the river is so much accelerated as to leave its channel comparatively empty: an occurrence which has been frequently observed. On one occasion, during the British expedition against Buenos Ayres, this took place to such an extent that many of the vessels were grounded, and one was left in such shallow water as to have been actually boarded and taken possession of by a party of *gauchos* on horseback; and in the first volume of the *Naval Chronicle* a still more remarkable occurrence of this kind is recorded. "In 1793 the waters of this river were forced, in the month of April, by a most violent current of wind, to the distance of ten leagues, so that the neighbouring plains were entirely inundated, and the bed of the river left dry. Ships which had been sunk in the river for upwards of thirty years were uncovered, and, among others, an English vessel which was cast away in the year 1762. Several persons repaired to the bed of the river, where they could walk about without wetting their feet, and returned laden with silver and other riches which had been long buried under the water. This phenomenon continued three days, at the end of which the wind ceased, and the water returned with great violence to its natural bed." Such an occurrence, although apparently somewhat exaggerated, may to a certain extent be accounted for by the inconsiderable depth of water which prevails throughout the greater part of this river, and the great extent of surface exposed to the influence of the wind.

Agriculture.

The breeding and rearing of cattle constitutes by far the most important and extensive branch of agricultural industry in this province, which, in all directions excepting in the immediate vicinity of the city, is covered with

estancias or breeding farms, which are considered as the most profitable investments of capital, the increase of stock being so rapid under ordinary circumstances as amply to repay the labour and expense of these establishments. The number of cattle which formerly existed in this country almost exceeds belief. Before the revolution they were often killed merely for the sake of their hides, and were generally purchased at a dollar each. But since that time their value has greatly increased, owing to the increased demand for exportation, and the diminution of numbers occasioned by the political occurrences which took place subsequent to that period; but even at present their number is very considerable, and they are sold at from five to eight or ten dollars each. The size of the *estancias* is sometimes very considerable, comprising many square leagues; and the number of cattle on the largest may vary from twenty to forty or fifty thousand. Every proprietor can easily distinguish his own cattle and horses by a mark branded on each of them; the period of the year when the young animals are collected to undergo this operation being a time of festivity and enjoyment. At each *estancia*, after stated intervals, a *rodeo* is held, when all the cattle are collected together and examined, and those which have strayed from the neighbouring estates are driven back by the *peons* or farm servants, who attend on such occasions from the surrounding *estancias*, and the animals are thus prevented from straying too far. They are remarkably fond of salt, and sometimes travel great distances to feed on this substance at the lakes and other places where it abounds. It is a common observation, that the flesh of those cattle and sheep who feed in districts where salt abounds is much more savoury than any other; and every circumstance tends to prove that salt powerfully assists the process of digestion in these animals, as well as in the human species. In consequence of the diminution which had taken place in the number of cattle, a law was enacted prohibiting the slaughter of cows, so as to encourage by every possible means the increase of this staple article of produce.

Horses are likewise very abundant. They are from fourteen to sixteen hands high, hardy, and capable of undergoing a great deal of fatigue in the performance of long journeys. Their usual pace, which is a canter or gallop, is very easy, and causes little fatigue to the traveller. Their price varies from four or five dollars to eighteen or twenty, according to the quality and demand; but they have occasionally been purchased in large quantities, for the use of the government, at three dollars or twelve shillings each. The large Flemish or dray horse has recently been introduced into the country, with the view of employing it in the traffic with the interior. A great prejudice exists here against using mares for the saddle; and such is the ridicule excited among the natives by their use, that only some foreigners have as yet ventured to introduce the custom. They are only useful for breeding and treading out corn, and may be purchased at half a dollar or two shillings each. They are often bartered or sold to the Indians, who use them as their principal article of food, and prefer their flesh to any other. This practice has exercised a remarkable influence on the mode of warfare which these tribes have carried on against the Creoles, giving them a mobility in all their operations which cannot be attained by any other means. Provided with a herd of mares, which on such occasions form their only food, they can advance or retreat with great celerity, and thereby evade a rencontre with their opponents. The late Colonel Rauch, however, followed their example, when in command of the frontier, by feeding his soldiers on mares' flesh while on service, and thereby gained the desired superiority which discipline afforded, over his uncivilized opponents.

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The number of mules reared in this province is inconceivable compared with that in the interior provinces, where the ground is harder, and better suited for the rearing of mules for exportation to Bolivia, and for the use of the mountainous districts. Sheep were formerly valued only for their wool, and were purchased for about threepence each; their flesh was seldom used for food, but was frequently dried and used as fuel in the burning of bricks; and there is still a law extant, prohibiting the practice of driving the sheep alive into the brick-kilns to save the trouble of previously killing them. They are now more valuable, both as an article of food, and for their wool and skins, which are exported. Endeavours have already been made to improve the quality of the wool by the introduction of Merino sheep. The price of sheep varies from half a dollar to a dollar each.

As the breeding of cattle has principally occupied the attention of the inhabitants of this country, comparatively little attention has hitherto been paid to the other branches of agriculture. Wheat is only cultivated to a small extent, and in quantity quite insufficient to supply the demands of the inhabitants. This is owing principally to the frequent failure of wheat crops, which in dull and moist weather are liable to blight, and during other years to total loss from the long continuance of dry weather. In future this branch of agriculture will probably be principally confined to the country south of the river Salado, where the soil and climate are much better adapted to the production of wheat than nearer Buenos Ayres. In the former district the soil consists of a stratum of black mould, several feet in thickness, under which is a bed of clay, resting on sand and gravel, where water is usually found. In the latter it consists of a chalky yet productive mould, unmixed with stones, but resting on a stratum of *taca*, consisting of hardened clay and lime, which is usually situated from ten to thirty yards beneath the surface. Barley and maize are cultivated with success; the latter being produced in great abundance, and extensively used as an article of food. The great influx of intelligent foreigners into the province has introduced many branches of agriculture previously unknown, and materially contributed towards developing the natural resources of the country. The introduction of timber and forest trees into the province as an article of culture has excited much attention; and efforts are making to form plantations, which will greatly beautify the country, and eventually supply the inhabitants with timber, which at present is brought from a great distance, and is very expensive.

The fences or inclosures used in this country consist, in the neighbourhood of the city and the more cultivated districts, of the *tuna* (*Cactus Peruvianus*) and American aloe (*Agave Americana*), which grow with rapidity and luxuriance, especially the latter, whose tall, flowering stem rises up to the height of twenty-five or thirty feet in the course of one year, and strikingly evinces the strength of vegetation in this climate. It is considered objectionable as a fence, as its large sheathing leaves afford shelter to numerous small animals, which destroy the produce of the fields inclosed. In the more remote districts ditching has been found to be the only kind of inclosure suited to the country, the earth which is excavated forming a raised embankment on the inside. Some of the foreigners settled in the country have improved this mode of fencing, by planting rows of the *salix* shrub along these embankments.

Immigra-
tion.

In consequence of the long and extensive intercourse which has been maintained between the inhabitants of Buenos Ayres and the numerous foreigners established in their country, they have been deeply impressed with the importance of an increase in their numbers, having had

ample experience of their greater industry and superior attainments in agriculture and the arts. The authorities, fully participating in these feelings, took effectual measures to encourage, by every means in their power, the ingress into the country of industrious artisans and agricultural labourers from Europe. Accordingly, on the 13th April 1824, and 19th January 1825, decrees were issued by the government, appointing a committee of emigration, who were provided with the necessary funds and instructions to enable them to carry forward this important undertaking. This committee consisted of citizens, and foreigners resident and possessing fixed property in the country, so proportioned as duly to represent the interests of all parties concerned. They were directed to take effectual measures to make known to the industrious classes in Europe the inducements held out to them to emigrate to Buenos Ayres, and to employ agents in Europe in furtherance of the undertaking. They were authorized to pay a sum not exceeding one hundred dollars, or twenty pounds sterling, as passage-money for each adult arriving in the country; to provide such as required assistance on their arrival, with food and lodgings for fifteen days, during which time they were allowed to seek for employment, and, if unsuccessful at the expiry of that period, the committee were charged with the duty of finding employment for them, and of regulating the contracts and agreements entered into by mutual consent with their employers, in such a manner as to secure the rights and privileges of each party during its continuance, and to provide for the repayment of the expenses incurred by the committee, by means of a well-regulated system of gradual instalments. It was likewise enacted, that emigrants completing the terms of their respective engagements to the satisfaction of the committee, were entitled to a preference in the renting of the state lands, each portion of land not being of less extent than sixty acres, but greater in proportion to the fitness and means of each. Under such circumstances, deserving individuals were authorized to receive from the funds of the committee a loan of three hundred dollars, or sixty pounds sterling, on which a per centage was to be paid annually, and the whole repaid by instalments at stated but convenient periods; all such occupiers of land having the right of possession of the legal value of the lands, of all the improvements effected, and to negotiate or transfer them, as also to become the purchasers of such lands in preference to every other competitor, when authorized by law to be sold. The emigrants were to enjoy the protection and guarantee of the laws of the country, the security of persons and property, and the enjoyment of all rights and privileges possessed by the natives; exemption from all taxes and contributions not imposed on the rest of the community; and exemption during a certain period from all civil and military services, unless voluntary, together with the free exercise of their religion.

These judicious regulations were speedily carried into effect by the committee, in the preparation of the *Recoleta*, a large and spacious convent in the vicinity of the city, for the reception of emigrants and their families on their arrival, and by the active circulation, in Great Britain, France, and Germany, of these regulations. The efficacy of these measures was soon afterwards evinced by the numbers who resorted from these countries to Buenos Ayres. The following table will show the progress made in this undertaking during the interval between the time of its enactment and November 1826, when all further arrivals of emigrants were prevented by the war with Brazil. It shows the amount of monies advanced to the emigrants by the committee, and the extent of the repayments which had been made, up to April 1828; and the results are highly

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Buenos Ayres credible to the national character of the Germans, who, on account of their industry and correct conduct, are much esteemed in this country. The village of Chorroarin, al-

luded to in the table, was an establishment formed for the German emigrants on 11th March 1827, in the neighbourhood of Buenos Ayres.

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Abstract of Proceedings of Committee of Emigration of Buenos Ayres, from 24th September 1825 to April 1828.

Emigrants.	Men.	Women.	Children.	Total.	Money advanced in Dollars	Money repaid in Dollars.
French, in nine vessels.....	617	78	62	757	67,143 0	19,034 5
Germans, in two do.....	107	65	71	243	31,333 7½	31,333 7½
English, in two do.....	91	91	9,205 2	5,170 4
French, } in various vessels...	56	8	7	71	4,270 7	421 4
Germans and others, }	9	9	1,690 0	1,584 6½
German colony at Chorroarin.....	18,956 6	16,806 4
Expenses of establishment at Recoleta....	9,529 3½	1,109 3
Contingent expenses.....
Total.....	880	151	140	1171	142,068 2	77,471 2

Amount of money advanced.....L.28,413 13 0 sterling
Do. repaid..... 15,49½ 5 0

Remaining due April 1828.....L.12,919 8 0

The subsequent proceedings of the committee are of little interest, the continuance of the war, and the other political circumstances of the country, having prevented any renewal of their exertions. On the 20th of August 1830, the committee was abolished, and their proceedings brought to a conclusion, by a decree of that period, the existing authorities disapproving of those political principles which originally gave rise to its formation. They affirm that experience has proved to their satisfaction, that the method hitherto pursued with the agricultural emigrants in this country has not been productive of that advantage to the country or to the emigrants themselves which was at first anticipated. It has therefore been determined that any subsequent endeavours to encourage emigration by the government shall be conducted on different principles from those formerly pursued.

The efforts to promote emigration to this country were not, however, entirely confined to the government of Buenos Ayres, but were participated in by two emigration associations connected with Great Britain. The one formed in London under the direction of Mr Barber Besumont, and named the Río de la Plata Agricultural Association, sent out emigrants on various occasions to the number of more than six hundred persons, and incurred considerable expense; but it completely failed in accomplishing the principal objects of its institution, the formation of an extensive agricultural establishment in the country. This failure has been attributed by some of those engaged in the undertaking, but evidently on insufficient grounds, to the bad faith, apathy, and want of co-operation on the part of the authorities of Buenos Ayres; and it may with much greater justice be ascribed to the precipitation and mismanagement of those entrusted with the affairs of the association. The emigrants, injudiciously selected, were hurried from Great Britain before they had provided efficient or responsible agents in the country, or had made the necessary arrangements for their reception; the consequence was, that the greater number were kept in a state of idleness and inactivity at Buenos Ayres for many months after their arrival, during which time they became acquainted with the country and its inhabitants, and formed connections tending to divert them from fulfilling their engagements to the association, so that only a few of them ever reached their final destination. The greater part of their operations were carried on during the war with Brazil, when every obstacle was thrown in the way of their

success; and the principal agricultural establishment which they formed was in the province of Entre Ríos, where the authorities of Buenos Ayres exercised no influence or control, more especially during the war. The Committee of Emigration advanced, in aid of these emigrants, 26,802 dollars, or L.5025. 7s. 3d. sterling, no part of which appears ever to have been repaid. But although this undertaking proved a complete failure in as far as the interests of the shareholders were concerned, yet the emigrants had no cause of complaint, since all those inclined to be industrious found plenty of employment and good wages. Some of them entered on board the privateers and into the naval service of Buenos Ayres during the war with Brazil, and greatly distinguished themselves during their various combats with the Brazilian squadron.

The other association was of a very different character. It was formed by the Messrs Robertsons, British merchants settled in Buenos Ayres, and in connection with some of the natives possessing influence and capital. They purchased some adjoining properties at Monte Grande, situated about fifteen miles south-west of the city. The emigrants were selected with great care from among the intelligent and experienced farmers of the south of Scotland, and were conveyed to the new colony with their families, domestic and farm servants, and all the requisite implements of husbandry. The property, which contained upwards of fifteen thousand acres, was divided into nearly equal portions, and distributed among the principal farmers by lot, a part having been reserved for the formation of a projected village, and for some other purposes connected with the establishment; and a comfortable brick house and offices were built at each farm for the accommodation of the emigrants.

In April 1828, when the colony had been in existence three years, and had the fairest prospect of ultimate success, it presented a very interesting appearance. It had already attracted the attention of the most intelligent citizens of Buenos Ayres, and of the inhabitants around it. The farmers had made considerable progress in bringing under culture the lands which had been apportioned to them, and which they found almost in a state of nature. While introducing the Scottish system of farming, they judiciously adopted those agricultural practices of the country which were found best suited to the soil and climate, and with the most decided advantage. Two thousand and fourteen acres had then been inclosed with well-made ditches, and planted with young hedges formed of *tala*, a thorny shrub, natural to the country, which, on trial, had been found well calculated for this purpose. Four hundred and thirty-nine acres had been planted with forest and fruit trees, in addition

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to the *tala* thick, which they found in existence; and they had abundant crops of maize or Indian corn, but had failed in their attempts to cultivate wheat. The dairy had proved a very lucrative branch of industry, the colonists having in their possession two thousand seven hundred and fifty-seven head of black cattle, principally milch cows. They made considerable quantities of butter and cheese, which, on account of its excellent quality, was quickly sold in the city at high prices.

Some of the original emigrants had left the colony, but had been replaced by others of the party of Beaumont; and the colony then consisted of one hundred and fifty-three men, eighty-eight women, and eighty-seven children, in all three hundred and twenty-six Scotch; and a hundred and eighty-eight natives of the country were employed in their various domestic and agricultural occupations, with which they had become familiarized. A Presbyterian chapel had been erected, and a clergyman brought from Scotland, who, besides his clerical duties, superintended the education of the children of the colony. The improvements which they had introduced into the agricultural practices of the country were numerous and important; but it may suffice to state one or two instances to evince the advantages arising from their zeal and intelligence. During the first year of their settlement one of their number lost some of his crop, in consequence of the dried thistles in the neighbourhood taking fire and extending its ravages to his fields. The conflagration, however, was speedily extinguished, and prevented from extending itself farther, by the strenuous and united efforts of all the colonists. But to prevent a similar occurrence in future, and to clear their lands from such intruders, one of their number invented an instrument which with little expense and trouble speedily accomplished this object. The wheels, axle-tree, and trams of a cart were procured; two perpendicular shafts were made to project downwards from the axle-tree, having the lower extremity armed with scythes; a rotatory motion was communicated to these scythes by the movement of the wheels of the cart, and they cut across all the young thistles which intervened between the wheels in passing. It was moved by a single horse. When this was done at the proper season, the thistles did not arrive at maturity or bear seed that year, and were thus gradually extinguished. The *bisacchos* committed great ravages among their corn and green crops, and were therefore rooted out of the colony by the following means. By the common consent of the colonists, the whole of their burrows, which are generally found crowded together in certain localities, were firmly closed up with earth; and the same operation was repeated daily for some time, where new holes were formed, until these animals were either driven from the district, or perished in their burrows from excessive labour and deficient food; for they are timid, and only venture out to feed during the night time.

Since the above period, however, the Scottish colony at Monte Grande has experienced various vicissitudes tending to retard its progress. During the civil war which prevailed in the province in 1829, the whole of their live stock was swept away by the combatants; but the colonists having assiduously cultivated their fields when their neighbours had suspended their agricultural operations in consequence of the disturbed state of the country, they sold their produce at high prices, the people being almost entirely dependent on them for some articles, and thereby more than counterbalanced the losses they had otherwise sustained. Subsequently they have experienced, in common with all the rest of the province, the fatal consequences of the long-continued drought which has almost ever since prevailed, and against which no foresight or industry could provide. From these and other causes the original establishment has

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been broken up; and the farms are now held on a different tenure by several of the original farmers, who have, in some instances, been joined by their friends and relatives from Scotland.

Artizans in considerable numbers have likewise resorted from Europe to this province, and, when industrious, they have almost uniformly improved their circumstances. They have plenty of employment, and, as well as the agricultural labourers, receive high wages. These inducements, the abundance and cheapness of living, and the protection of person, property, and religion, which is enjoyed at Buenos Ayres, only require to be better and more generally known in Europe to induce a considerable portion of its redundant population to remove to a country possessing so fine a climate, with such great natural and social advantages.

Emigrants from Great Britain have even greater inducements than others to settle in this country, as, besides the security and privileges insured to all foreigners settling among them by the established laws of the country, they are especially protected by a treaty of amity, commerce, and navigation, concluded on the 2d February 1825, between his Britannic majesty and the supreme authorities of the united provinces of the Rio de la Plata. This treaty guarantees a reciprocal freedom of commerce and navigation; security of person and property, even in the event of a rupture between the two countries; the right of possessing and disposing of property of all kinds by will or otherwise; exemption from all compulsory military services by sea or land, and from all forced loans or military exactions; the enjoyment of perfect liberty of conscience, with the free exercise of religion; and the right of building churches or chapels, with the previous consent of the government, and of forming burial-places for their own use. British capital to a considerable amount has already been invested in the purchase of property in this country, and in the formation of *estancias* and other establishments; and emigrants from Great Britain are received with the best and most friendly feelings on the part of the inhabitants, the more intelligent part of whom are strongly impressed with the conviction, that the future prosperity of their country will mainly depend on the augmented number of industrious emigrants from Europe.

Such emigrants as possess capital, and resort to Buenos Ayres for the purpose of engaging in the breeding of cattle or in agriculture, will find valuable properties which may be purchased at moderate prices. The value, however, varies considerably according to situation and other circumstances. The sale of public lands has been prohibited for some years past, in consequence of the extensive alienation of state lands which formerly took place, at a time when the price obtained was very inconsiderable, and altogether inadequate to their real value. The law of *emphyteusis* was therefore passed, which prohibits the further sale of public lands until the country shall be relieved from the debts and other obligations contracted by the government, and its revenue otherwise well regulated; it being anticipated that, as the government becomes more permanent and efficient, and the population more numerous and industrious, the increased value of these lands will not only suffice to relieve the country of these encumbrances, but will furnish a permanent revenue, so as to enable the government to lessen the custom-house duties and other taxes. This law has been considered as favourable to emigrants and natives desirous of forming *estancias* or farms, by its preventing the accumulation of large tracts of land in the hands of capitalists, who might exercise an undue or capricious influence over such settlers, or retain their lands in an unproductive state; and by enabling settlers at once to employ all their capital in the improvement of the property

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These regulations enable the authorities to dispose of the public lands on leases of not less than eight years, at an annual quitrent, estimated at about eighty dollars, or £1.16 sterling, for every square league of land; the precise sum, however, is fixed by a jury of the neighbouring proprietors, on a survey and measurement being made at the public expense, under the direction of the topographical board; it being necessary in granting leases, or in the transfer of property, to have their limits determined by such means, to render these transactions legal. To the leases of public lands are annexed the following conditions, namely, that all improvements made on the lands during the lease shall belong to the lessee, be transferable to his heirs or successors, and paid for according to valuation, by government, or by his successor, in the event of his leaving the land at the end of the lease; and that, in the event of the property being sold by the government, the lessee shall have a preferable right to become the purchaser over every other person. To render such leases valid, if for an *estancia*, the tenant is required within two years to have on the property at least a hundred head of cattle, the requisite number of horses, a hut or dwelling-house, and a *corral* or inclosure for the cattle, for every square league of land so occupied. At the termination of the lease, if desirous of continuing in possession, a renewal of the lease may be obtained on an increase of rent proportioned to the augmented value of land, as determined by a jury.

The promulgation of this law was followed by many applications for lands, and numerous *estancias* have accordingly been formed. Endeavours have been made by influential individuals possessing capital, and desirous of obtaining entire possession of some of these lands, to have this law rescinded, but hitherto without success, or any probability of such a change; as the general impression among the influential inhabitants of Buenos Ayres is favourable to the permanency of a measure so much calculated to maintain the credit and respectability of the country and of government.

Commerce. From its advantageous position, Buenos Ayres seems destined to become the great emporium of commerce in this part of South America, being situated near the confluence of the rivers Parana and Uruguay, where they unite to form the Rio de la Plata. An easy communication is thereby afforded with those extensive and important countries through which these mighty rivers and their numerous tributaries flow. The Parana, which is considered the parent stream, may be navigated without impediment as far as the island of Apipé, distant fifteen hundred miles from the mouth of the river Plata, at Capo Santa Maria. The river Paraguay, of equal importance, may be ascended nearly as far as the Laguna de los Xarayes, and conveys vessels of considerable size to Assumption, the capital of Paraguay, in which country vessels of three hundred tons have been built, and afterwards employed in foreign voyages. The large and important rivers Pilcomayo and Vermejo flow into the Paraguay, and extend the communication by water within a short distance of the centre of Bolivia, traversing in their course the provinces of Salta and Gran Chaco. Further south the fertile provinces of Tucuman and Sant Iago del Estero communicate with the Parana by means of the Salado, which unites with it at Santa Fé; and the river Tercero may be rendered available, at an inconsiderable expense, in improving the communication with the provinces of Cordova and of Cuyo, situated near the Andes.

The Uruguay, in connection with the Rio Negro, and other important rivers which unite with it, penetrate far into the interior, and open up an extensive and fertile

country to commerce and civilization. Little advantage, however, has hitherto been taken of all these facilities, either by the Spaniards or their successors; and the commerce which is carried on by means of these rivers is as yet very limited. The establishment of steam navigation will powerfully contribute to the extension of industry and civilization throughout these countries, by the certainty and rapidity of communication which will be the consequence. By this means a voyage may be made from Buenos Ayres to Assumption in a fortnight, though under present circumstances it occupies several months.

The commercial intercourse of Buenos Ayres with the interior has hitherto been principally carried on by means of mules, and of waggons drawn by six bullocks each. These waggons are of a rude and clumsy construction, being formed entirely of wood, and are secured and strengthened by pieces of hide. They usually travel in troops of from twelve to twenty in number, for mutual protection and assistance in cases of difficulty. Those which travel from Mendoza or San Juan to the capital, a distance of about nine hundred miles, generally occupy a month in the journey. By means of these waggons a very extensive traffic was formerly carried on from Buenos Ayres for the supply of Upper Peru with European productions, and yerba or Paraguay tea, of which about 2,500,000 pounds were formerly sent every year to Peru, and 1,000,000 pounds to Chili. They travelled by way of Cordova, Tucuman, and Salta, to Jujuy, which is situated on the confines of Bolivia, and distant 1617 miles from Buenos Ayres. But the war of independence greatly interrupted this traffic; and subsequent events having enabled Bolivia to obtain supplies by a cheaper and more direct route, it has nearly ceased, excepting for the consumption of the intervening provinces, the greater part of which will eventually obtain supplies, and an outlet for their productions, at much less expense, by means of the rivers Vermejo and Salado, which traverse these provinces.

The commerce of Buenos Ayres, although subject to many and injurious restrictions under the Spanish regime, was very considerable, as Peru obtained many of its supplies by this channel. The average annual trade of this port between 1792 and 1796 was as follows:

	Imports.	Exports.
Spain.....	£35,587	£98,049
Havannah.....	20,397	15,059
Lima.....	5,264	4,723
Coast of Africa.....	66,705	27,987

£627,953 £1,029,818

The extent and value of the foreign commerce of Buenos Ayres have since become very considerable, having gradually increased in importance since free intercourse has been permitted with other countries. The external wars and civil dissensions in which its inhabitants have been engaged have somewhat retarded its progress, but to a less extent than might have been expected. When its commerce is viewed in relation to the population and resources of the country, its amount far exceeds that of the other New South American states, and shows the great advantages it has derived from a free and unrestricted intercourse with other nations, and the liberal and enlightened principles pursued by the authorities in regulating this intercourse, and encouraging industry and enterprise.

In 1821 the number of vessels cleared out at Buenos Ayres were 322, of which 114 were British; in 1822 there were 304, of which 167 were British; in 1830 there were 250, of which sixty were British, seventy-one North American, forty-one national, twenty-six Brazilian, and the remainder of various nations. During 1821 and the

Buenos Ayres. three following years, the number of vessels which arrived at Buenos Ayres laden with goods and produce from Great Britain were a hundred and twenty-eight, a hundred and thirty-three, a hundred and thirteen, and a hundred and ten; but during 1831 only forty-four British vessels with cargoes arrived at Buenos Ayres, owing to the depressed state of commerce. The trade of Buenos Ayres with Paraguay has been almost entirely suspended during the last twelve years, in consequence of the extraordinary policy pursued by Francia, the ruler of that country; but it will undoubtedly be renewed on a change taking place, as its productions are important and in great demand all over South America, especially the yerba or Paraguay tea, obtained from the *Ilex Paraguayensis*; and the tobacco, which is of superior quality. Valuable timber is also obtained from the same country, with which an extensive commerce was formerly carried on.

With the exception of Brazil, the commerce of Buenos Ayres is of more importance to Great Britain than that of any other of the new states of South America. The whole exports from Britain to South America and Mexico, exclusive of Brazil, during four years ending 1825, amounted to L.12,986,139 sterling; and of this upwards of one third, or L.4,648,451, was sent to the Rio de la Plata. The value of the trade of Great Britain with this country is shown by the following table of exports and imports to Buenos Ayres in each year from 1806, when it was first opened to foreign commerce, to 1830, with the exception of 1808, 1809, 1810, 1811, and 1813, the records of which years were destroyed by fire. The diminution during 1826, 1827, and 1828, was owing to the war carried on between Buenos Ayres and Brazil, during which period the port of Buenos Ayres was strictly blockaded by the naval forces of the latter power.

Years.	Official value of Imports into Great Britain.	Official Value of Exports from Great Britain.			Declared value of British and Irish Produce and Manufactures exported from Great Britain.
		British and Irish Produce and Manufactures.	Foreign and Colonial Merchandise.	Total Exports.	
	£	£	£	£	£
1806	121,686	922,018	103,532	1,025,550	Records destroyed by fire.
1807	113,626	177,374	31,677	209,051	
1812	101,795	369,346	35,617	404,963	
1814	167,414	441,587	18,462	460,049	
1815	283,119	421,418	7,887	429,303	
1816	314,322	326,743	11,674	338,417	
1817	113,942	652,642	12,981	665,623	
1818	272,507	673,920	16,385	690,305	
1819	244,863	360,311	10,842	371,159	
1820	192,698	717,323	13,438	730,761	
1821	273,093	633,888	37,228	671,116	591,031
1822	373,444	1,292,250	34,082	1,366,332	981,047
1823	388,338	777,679	25,559	803,238	664,436
1824	498,616	1,550,393	31,382	1,581,775	1,141,920
1825	477,875	968,315	28,792	997,107	149,920
1826	265,630	415,582	6,318	421,900	371,117
1827	29,523	222,590	8,249	230,839	154,895
1828	143,491	477,115	7,249	484,364	312,389
1829	536,051	1,289,056	17,338	1,306,394	758,540
1830	583,946	1,067,884	12,680	1,060,563	632,172

The commerce of the United States of North America for one year ending 30th September 1826, with Buenos Ayres, amounted to \$22,769 dollars, or L.104,553. 12s. of imports, and \$79,340 dollars, or L.75,968, of exports, of which \$22,832 dollars consisted of domestic produce, and 155,508 dollars of foreign produce. This trade has, however, greatly

extended itself of late years, in consequence of the fatal effects of the civil dissensions and other domestic calamities upon the crops. To supply the necessary wants of the inhabitants, large quantities of flour have been imported from North America, which has greatly tended to impoverish the country. The trade with the United States for flour will no doubt be greatly diminished, or cease altogether, if the republic remains tranquil, and is enabled to attend to agricultural pursuits. In former times considerable quantities of wheat were exported from Buenos Ayres to Brazil.

The imports into Buenos Ayres consist of manufactured goods from Europe, Asia, and North America; wines and brandies from France, Spain, and Sicily; Rhenish wines from Hamburg; gin from Hamburg, Antwerp, and North America; rum from Brazil and Havannah; ale, porter, salt, coals, iron, flag-stones, and other merchandise, from Great Britain; sugar, rum, and arrack, from the Isle of France, in exchange for mules; rum, rice, and tobacco, from the Havannah, in exchange for jerked beef; flour, pine-boards, planks, and mahogany, from the United States of North America. The following table shows the nature and value of these imports during 1829 and 1830.

	Dollars.
Cotton manufactured goods.....	11,303,303
Woolen do. do.....	3,134,294
Linen do. do.....	2,239,795
Silk do. do.....	288,551
Female dresses, ornaments, &c.....	1,823,640
Wearing apparel, hats, boots, shoes, &c.....	2,233,684
Jewellery.....	128,100
Furniture, carriages, and harness.....	448,709
Machinery and instruments of arts and science	41,922
Books, paper, engravings, music, &c.....	335,979
Hardware, cutlery, &c.....	1,139,911
Wines, brandies, ales, cider, &c.....	3,904,088
Tea, sugar, coffee, and other groceries.....	3,150,773
Yerba mate.....	681,100
Flour.....	2,256,901
Salt.....	907,190
Tobacco.....	631,395
Medicines.....	63,308
Perfumery.....	46,534
Naval and military stores.....	704,545
Glass, porcelain, stone-ware, &c.....	608,972
Marble, bricks, stone, lime, and stucco.....	81,712
Coals and fire-wood.....	42,547
Spermaceti and tallow candles.....	23,736
Wax, soap, oils, colours, &c.....	158,551
Timber of all kinds.....	282,029
Leather and furs.....	132,845
Sundry other articles.....	137,495

Total value in current dollars.....36,826,601

Imports in 1829, 36,826,601 dollars at

10d. =L.1,534,858 7 6

Do. in 1830, 42,433,270 do. at

6d. =1,165,310 14 7

Total imports of 1829 and 1830.....L.2,700,169 2 1

Exports in 1829, 25,561,940 dollars at

10d. =L.1,065,043 10 0

Do. in 1830, 28,696,358 do. at

6d. =807,085 1 0

Total exports of 1829 and 1830.....L.1,872,133 11 0

The nature and value of the various articles of export from Buenos Ayres during one year, will be seen in the following table:—

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Table of Exports from Buenos Ayres during one year after the termination of the war with Brazil, showing its nature and amount, the Shipping employed, and destination.

Vessel	Destination	Gold in Doubletons.	Silver in Dollars.	Ounces of Gold uncoined at 15 Dollars.	Marks of Silver uncoined at 8 Dollars.	Ox and Cow Hides at 2½ Dollars each.	Horse Hides at 1½ Dollar each.	Dozens of Nutria Skins at 7 Dollars.	Dozens of Chinchilla Skins at 7 Dollars.	Quintals of Jerked Beef at 5 Dollars.	Arrobas of Tallow at 3 Dollars.	Quintals of Ox and Horse Hair at 18 Dollars.	Arrobas of Wool at 5 Rials.	Horns and Horn Tips at 80 Dollars per Thousand.	Total amount of Gold and Silver in Dollars.	Total amount of Produce in Dollars.	Total value in Sterling Money.
British.....	Great Britain.....	10,598	101,072	426,623	426,623	410,453	56,323	52,655	1,886	5,267	6,551	253,132	337,552	1,824,603	1,432,443
	Europe.....	130,447	469,416	37,683
	Brazil.....	10,618	...	50	27,683
American.....	Havannah.....	15,809	57,000	...	60,714	13,944
	United States.....	1,089	13,421	111,729	7,431	22,573	...	15,731	...	1,954	46,113	9,222
	Europe.....	44,733	3,600	5,975	545,032	115,597
	Brazil.....	18,621	22,200	...	186,430	37,296
French.....	Havannah.....
	France.....	145	648	99,184	6,006	7,365	1,342	57,483	11,496
	Europe.....	154,060	30,806
	Brazil.....	500	25,642	512,550	103,132
Argentine.....	Europe.....	1,555
	Havannah.....
	Brazil.....	888	3,179	3,029	6,434	5,831	1,166
	United States.....	30,570	...	3,300	...	6,900	...	72	19,272	3,854
Brazilian.....	United States.....	15,767	954	...	696	...	21,940	...	45,138	12,512
Other Nations.....	Brazil and Havannah.....
	Brazil.....
	United States.....
	Belgium.....
	Mediterranean.....
Total.....	Total.....	13,623	120,932	426,623	426,623	1,034,145	73,360	92,418	3,227	113,461	95,512	12,150	86,671	1,199,294	406,817	4,853,104	2,101,576

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Ayres.
Tariff.

The regulations of the custom-house at Buenos Ayres are very good, and business is transacted there with so much dispatch and precision as to prove very satisfactory to merchants and travellers. The import, export, and transit duties payable at the port of Buenos Ayres are as follow, but liable to yearly revision and alteration.

Import Duties.—Mercury, machinery, and instruments used in agriculture, the sciences, and the arts; books, engravings, pictures, statuary, printing presses; wool and furs for manufactures; embroidery in silk, gold or silver, with or without jewels; watches, jewellery, coal, saltpetre, gypsum, lime, stone for building, bricks, timber, rushes, and canes, pay five per cent. Raw and manufactured silk, arms, powder, flints, pitch, tar, cordage, and rice, pay ten per cent. Manufactured goods and hardware pay seventeen per cent. Sugar, tea, coffee, yerba mate, cocoa, and provisions, generally pay twenty-four per cent. Furniture, looking-glasses, coaches, saddlery and harness, wearing apparel, boots, shoes, liquors, brandies, wines, vinegars, malt liquors, cider, and tobacco, pay forty per cent. All other articles pay seventeen per cent. Wheat, when not exceeding six dollars per fanega, pays four dollars; when seven dollars, it pays three dollars; and above seven dollars, it pays two dollars of duty. Flour pays three dollars per quintal; salt pays one and a half dollar per fanega; and hats of silk, wool, or fur, nine dollars each. **Export Duties.**—Hides of bulls, oxen, cows, horses, and mules, pay one dollar each. Salt beef exported in national vessels, grain, provisions, biscuit, flour, sheep skins, wool, tanned hides, and all manufactures of the country free of duty. Gold and silver pay one per cent, but the export of coined money is at present prohibited. All other productions of the province or interior provinces pay four per cent. **Transit Duties.**—Goods of maritime introduction, on being transhipped, pay a fifth part of the amount of duty payable on their introduction into the country. Goods warehoused pay two per cent. on being re-embarked. Twenty-five days are allowed for transhipping, and six months for re-embarking goods which have been warehoused, each being dated from the day of the vessel's arrival.

Bank.

A bank of discounts was established in Buenos Ayres in 1822, with a capital of one million of dollars, which continued to prosper while it remained a private concern, and under the management of those most interested in its prosperity. When the province of Buenos Ayres became engaged, almost single handed, in a contest with the empire of Brazil, the exigencies of the government induced the authorities to use their influence to have it converted into a national bank, of which the government became large shareholders, and acquired great influence in its management. Strenuous efforts were made to extend its operations to the other provinces, but the introduction of its paper currency was so firmly opposed in almost every quarter, that very little has ever gone beyond the province. The fatal consequences of this measure were soon apparent in the great and rapid depreciation of the bank paper: an evil which was increased by every successive issue of paper to supply the wants of the government during the war with Brazil, and during the civil dissensions which have subsequently occurred. From forty-five pence, at which the paper dollar stood before the formation of the national bank, it fell at one time as low as fivepence halfpenny, and, according to the latest accounts, was sevenpence halfpenny per dollar. The interference of the government with this institution, of which they became the principal debtors, has proved ruinous in the extreme to the wealth and prosperity of the inhabitants. An effort was made by the authorities to remedy this great evil, by the imposition of certain extra duties and taxes, from which sources a sinking fund was created to purchase up and extinguish the bank currency; and some progress has already been

made in this undertaking, but as yet little compared with the extent of the evil. The bank has thus become so intimately connected with the financial state of the country, that it can now only recover its former credit in proportion as the state is enabled to repay the debts which it has contracted in relation to this establishment.

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The revenue derived by Spain from Buenos Ayres from Revenue, 1776, when it was formed into a vice-royalty, until 1806, when it was taken by the English, seldom exceeded seven hundred thousand dollars annually; which sum not only comprised the revenue of the provinces of Rio de la Plata, but also that of Upper Peru. It was derived from the alcabala, a duty of from three to five per cent. on all sales and re-sales, tithes, royal fifths of gold and silver, a poll tax on the Indians, sales of papal bulls, tonnage duties, &c. Many of these imposts were very oppressive, and often exacted with great partiality and injustice. But they ceased to be productive on the commencement of the revolution, with the exception of the customs, which were greatly augmented, in consequence of the extensive trade which ensued. The revenue derived from the custom-house of Buenos Ayres for five years ending 1795 amounted to 1,947,849 dollars, giving an annual average of 389,569 dollars; during 1802 it had increased to 857,702 dollars. Various attempts were made by the new government to increase the amount of revenue from this source, by an augmentation of the duties, but with the most injurious consequences to the revenue, as the high duties created so extensive a system of contraband trade, in a country possessing so many facilities for the infraction of the revenue laws, that on some occasions whole cargoes were landed without the payment of any duties.

In 1821 effectual measures were taken to remedy this evil, by remodelling the custom-house, and establishing a new scale of duties, formed on such moderate and just principles as tended to remove the temptation to further violation of the revenue laws. By the new tariff, the duties imposed on imports were from five to twenty-five per cent.; all duties being abolished on goods transmitted to the interior or received from thence, hides excepted. The beneficial consequences resulting from these regulations were apparent, in the immediate termination of smuggling, and the great increase in the revenue from the custom-house. The stamps and licenses were properly regulated, and extended to public houses. The port duties were continued, but national vessels were exempted. A property tax was imposed on capital, merchants paying annually eight dollars, manufacturers six, breeders of cattle two, farmers one, and all others two dollars for every thousand dollars of property; every one having less than one thousand dollars of capital being exempted from this duty, and, if married, less than two thousand dollars. The alcabala was abolished, and next year the tithes shared the same fate. After the improvements made in 1821, however, the increase of the revenue from the customs and other sources was very remarkable. In 1822 and 1823, and subsequently, the amount of these, with sales and rents of public property, has been as follows.

Revenue of 1822 and 1823.

	Dollars.
Customs.....	3,616,349
Stamps.....	189,208
Port duties.....	80,012
Property-tax.....	60,669
Tithes (abolished in 1822).....	50,682
Sundry minor duties.....	277,548
Sales of public property.....	148,934
Rents and revenue of do.....	158,192

L.916,318. 16s. sterling = 4,581,594

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Revenue of 1824.

	Dollars.
Duties and taxes.....	2,350,216
Sales of property.....	78,582
Rents and revenue of do.....	159,994
L.517,788. 8s. sterling =	2,588,792

Revenue of 1825.

L.526,629. 3s. sterling =2,633,148

Revenue of 1830, and to 30th June 1831,—18 months.

Customs.....	12,008,796
Stamp.....	668,864
Port duties.....	177,700
Property-tax.....	439,650
New duties for extinction of bank notes.....	1,810,629
Minor duties.....	121,463
Sales of property.....	56,011
Rents, dividends, &c.....	962,973
L.453,212. 16s. 8d. sterling =	16,266,086 Ex. 6½d.

Public
debt.

During the early years of the revolution, the revenue having proved insufficient to meet the expenses of the war of independence, various loans were at different times obtained, and these were allowed to accumulate until 1821, when they were examined and found to amount to about four and a half millions of dollars. This debt was then consolidated, and a sinking fund created for its gradual extinction, which has been in operation ever since. But in the interim a variety of causes gave rise to the accumulation of new debts. During 1824 a loan was contracted in London for one million sterling at six per cent, the contracting price being eighty-five per cent. The value of these bonds fluctuated considerably during the continuance of the Rivadavian administration, the interest having been regularly paid in London when due; but only on one occasion did they fall so low as forty. Since 12th July 1827, however, no interest whatever has been paid, consequently these bonds have fallen in value, having varied from forty to twenty, their present value being about twenty-four per cent. Besides this loan, various other additions have been made to the public debt during the war with Brazil, of which the following statement presents an approximate view.

Funded Debt.

	Dollars.	Dollars.
Funded previous to 1826, at 4 per cent.....	2,000,000	
Since redeemed by sinking fund.....	472,969	
		1,527,101
Ditto ditto at six per cent.....	5,360,000	
Since redeemed by sinking fund.....	2,495,981	
		2,864,019
Funded in 1827, at six per cent.....	6,000,000	
In circulation of the creation of 1831, at six per cent.....	1,000,000	
Total amount of local funded debt.....	11,001,120	

Floating Debt.

Balance due the National Bank.....	16,749,209
Less the amount of shares held in the bank by government.....	3,064,000
	13,685,209
Total local debt.....	25,556,409
As these items were contracted at different periods, when the exchange varied considerably, the value in sterling money of the loan, and of the funded and floating debt when contracted, may be estimated as follows:—	
Loan on England.....	L.1,000,000
Local funded debt.....	822,984
Ditto floating debt.....	1,708,161
	L3,531,145

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To this amount should be added the interest due on the loan contracted in England at six per cent. during the last five years; and also a loan of four millions of current dollars, amounting, at 7½d. each, to L.125,000 sterling, which has been raised by subscription in the province during the early part of 1832, to enable the government to pay the expenses incurred by the late civil war. These sums being united to the others, will raise the total amount of the public debt to about four millions sterling.

With the exception of the loan contracted in London, the whole of the remaining debt is redeemable in the currency of the country, and, in consequence of its great depreciation, could easily be paid off at the present time. But as this can only be accomplished gradually, the rates of exchange will necessarily rise in proportion to the progress made in the payment of the floating debt, and on the general prosperity of the country. The two sinking funds are still in operation for the extinction of the public debts; the one to redeem the funded debt, the other formed from the new duties imposed for the express purpose of buying up and destroying the bank-notes in circulation, or floating debt, and thereby removing the principal cause of the present depreciation. From 16th November 1829, when this latter sinking fund was first established, to 15th January 1832, it has produced 2,481,323 current dollars, or L.76,291. 6s. 11d. sterling, which has been already applied to the extinction of the paper currency. The revenue, in times of peace, considerably exceeds the necessary public expenditure; and, if tranquillity can be maintained for some years, it will materially contribute to the ultimate payment of the public debt. Besides, the public lands are preserved inviolate as a guarantee to the public creditors; an example which ought undoubtedly to be followed with the public lands of the other provinces, as they have had an equal share in the good or bad consequences resulting from the war of independence, the war with Brazil, and the civil contentions which have occasionally prevailed in the country, and given rise to the accumulation of these debts, the province of Buenos Ayres having on all these occasions principally contributed the necessary funds. That effectual measures will be adopted to accomplish this very desirable object as soon as circumstances will permit, cannot be doubted, as the authorities and the community are in general strongly impressed with the importance of regaining their credit, both at home and abroad; and it is but doing justice to the national character for good faith in pecuniary matters, to state, that prior to the Brazilian war, and the depreciation of the currency, it was a rare occurrence for any native of the Argentine Provinces engaged in business to become bankrupt, or to fail in the due performance of his pecuniary engagements.

In 1806, when the city of Buenos Ayres was taken by the British, its population was estimated at sixty thousand. In 1823 a calculation of the population was made from the bills of mortality of the city and country; the proportion of $\frac{1}{10}$ being assumed as the measure of mortality in the former, and $\frac{1}{15}$ in the latter, which gave 81,136 for the city and 82,080 for the country. In 1822 and 1823 the proportion of deaths to births was as 100 to 111 in the city, and 100 to 156 in the country, the average of the whole province being 100 to 131. The assertion that a large proportion of females than of males is born in this country has been disproved by the same returns, which show the births of males to that of females to be 100 to 95 in the city, and 100 to 96 in the country. The proportion of deaths under fifteen years of age to that of deaths above this age was 100 to 95 in the city, and 100 to 98 in the country. The following table of marriages, births, and deaths in the city and province of Buenos Ayres during the first six months of 1832, indicates the relative propor-

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tions of the white and coloured population, and what proportion of the latter were then slaves. Their number has

since been considerably diminished, in consequence of the operation of the existing laws for the extinction of slavery.

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	MARRIAGES.				BIRTHS.				DEATHS.		
	White.		Coloured.		White.		Coloured.		White.	Coloured.	
		Free.	Not Free.		Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.		Free.	Not Free.
City.....	165	50	60	453	413	168	179	547	196	61	
Province.....	289	40	14	615	604	100	97	634	149	61	
	454	90	83	1068	1017	268	276	1181	345	77	

Negro
slaves.

The number of negro slaves in the province of Buenos Ayres was never very great; they have seldom been employed in laborious works, but principally in the city as domestic servants, and have generally been treated with great kindness by their masters and mistresses. The laws which have regulated the relation of master and slave in the Spanish colonies have always been mild and favourable to the latter, and their condition has been improved by the revolution. There is a law in this republic which enables a slave, if dissatisfied with the treatment received from his owner, to insist on being sold, provided he can find a purchaser willing to pay the price given for him, or his full value as ascertained by competent judges; a regulation which exercises a most beneficial influence on the proprietor as well as on the slave. In 1813 it was decreed by the national congress, on the declaration of independence, that all children born of slave parents after that date should be free, consequently the number of slaves has been greatly diminished. During the early part of the revolution several thousands of the male negro slaves were purchased by the government from their owners, to serve as soldiers in the patriot armies, a practice which was discontinued in 1822. From all these causes, the number of negroes who are not yet free cannot now exceed one twelfth or one fifteenth part of the population. By the treaty concluded with Great Britain, all Argentines are prohibited from engaging in the slave trade. Little attention has hitherto been paid to the education or moral training of the free children of slaves; an evil which is now very apparent, and which ought to have been provided for on passing the law to which they owe their freedom.

Indians.

The aboriginal tribes of Indians who inhabit the southern part of this continent, east of the Cordillera of the Andes, are very inconsiderable in number, not exceeding 8000, including men, women, and children, according to the most authentic information; but even these have often proved formidable enemies, from their rapid movements and unexpected attacks on the Creoles, who, although more numerous, were often disunited, and without effective means of defence. Occasionally on these incursions they have been augmented by parties of the Araucanian Indians from the shores of the Pacific Ocean, who are closely allied to them in manners and character, use nearly the same language, and are distinguished by the same acuteness and intrepidity which have so long characterized that nation. It is truly satisfactory to find, that of late peace and tranquillity has been maintained with the Indians, and a good understanding established with them, in consequence of the conciliatory and pacific measures recently pursued by the authorities of Buenos Ayres in their intercourse with these tribes, who now resort in greater numbers and with more confidence than formerly, to the capital, where they carry on a traffic with the inhabitants, and behave with more order and decorum than previously. They have evinced some disposition to adopt the customs and habits of civilized life; and in one dis-

trict on the frontier the Indian population applied to the government for the erection of a Catholic chapel. Such occurrences as these indicate that the present period is favourable for the introduction of schools for the education of their children, and of those institutions which tend to the promotion of order and industry. Instances are not wanting of their aptitude for improvement, and of the great value they attach to the attainment of knowledge; but hitherto no effort has been made to improve their condition; and they have been taught little by the Creoles excepting their vices, a large proportion of those who have hitherto penetrated into their country having been worthless characters, or such as have fled from justice to avoid the punishment of their crimes. A systematic plan for introducing civilization among this people, if pursued with steadiness and good faith, could not fail of success, and in a few years would convert these tribes, from being the scourge and terror of the country, into quiet and industrious neighbours. The further extension of the Argentine republic towards the south would be greatly facilitated by these means, and very extensive and valuable tracts of country acquired by purchase at an expense far inferior to their real value; every circumstance calculated to produce a renewal of hostilities on the part of the Indians would be avoided; confidence and security would be restored; and a new impulse would be given to the industry and enterprise of the country. Hitherto it has been too much the practice to deprive the Indians of their lands by fraud or violence, when the same object might have been more effectually attained by milder means, had good faith and strict justice been observed towards them. The number of foreigners resident in the city and province of Buenos Ayres is estimated at 12,000, of whom one third are British, one third French, and the remainder Germans, Italians, &c.

Great improvements have taken place at Buenos Ayres in all the departments of education. In 1821 a university was founded there by a decree of the government, and an annual grant of ten thousand dollars given for its maintenance; salaries varying from four hundred to one thousand dollars per annum having been assigned to each of the professors. The principal departments of education then and subsequently instituted at this establishment have been Latin, French, and English, drawing, elementary and practical mathematics, logic, moral and natural philosophy, political economy, civil and national law, theory and practice of medicine and surgery, materia medica, chemistry, and natural history; and a commencement has been made in the formation of a national museum. Provision was also made for the education of those destined for the clerical profession. Degrees of law, medicine, and legislature, are conferred at this university. The government of Buenos Ayres made an offer to the provinces to educate at this university, at the public expense, six young men from each province; an offer which, with few exceptions, was gratefully accepted: but one province in parti-

Education.

Buenos Ayres. enlar, Mendoza, not satisfied with this number, solicited permission to send twelve of the youth of that province; a request which was acceded to, much to the satisfaction and advantage of its inhabitants. Numbers of young men have also been sent from Buenos Ayres to different parts of Europe for the improvement of their education.

Commercial, military, and various other academies and public schools, on improved principles, have been established in the city for the education of the children of the more wealthy classes, and, among these, an infant school particularly merits attention. Upwards of eight schools on the Lancasterian system have been formed for the tuition of the boys of the lower classes, and are supported at the public expense. A school for the education of the children of foreigners has been established by the British residents, and supported by voluntary contributions and other charitable expedients. During 1830 seventy-two boys and seventeen girls were educated at this school.

In former times the education of females was entirely neglected in this country; but since the country became independent, great advances have been made in this branch of education, more especially in the course of the last nine years, during which time no department of public improvement has made more steady or efficient advances than that of female education. On the 12th of April 1823 an institution called the Society of Beneficence was established under the auspices of the government, and composed of about twenty of the most influential ladies of Buenos Ayres, to whose care was intrusted the direction and superintendence of female education throughout the city and the province. The system of tuition adopted by this society in their schools was that of mutual instruction, introduced by Lancaster, with various improvements recommended by Madame Quignon and others. Besides reading, writing, and arithmetic, they are taught sewing and embroidery in all its departments, and are likewise, in some schools, instructed in the domestic and other duties most suited to their respective stations. In 1825 the number of schools was seven, and these contained six hundred children. In 1827 there were eleven schools, seven in the city, with five hundred and eighty-eight scholars, and four in the province, at San Jose de Flores, San Pedro, Chascomus, and San Nicolas, with two hundred and seventy-one scholars; in all eight hundred and fifty-nine female children. At the commencement of 1832 the number of schools under the care of the society, in the city and province, amounted to fourteen, new ones having been instituted at Lujan and San Fernando; and the number of females educated altogether amounted to one thousand two hundred and four. The experience acquired has enabled the society to reduce its expenditure to less than one half of the sum incurred in 1825, which was sixteen thousand one hundred and six dollars, and at the same time to double the number of schools and young females educated. A uniform system of education prevails in all these schools; and the mistresses or teachers employed, with the exception of four, have been trained and educated in the schools of the society.

There is annually a public examination of the scholars attending these schools, about the time of celebrating the festivals in commemoration of independence. On these occasions the needle-work and other productions of the girls are exhibited to the public, and prizes, provided at the expense of the government and the society, distributed to the most deserving. At each festival three other prizes, the one valued at two hundred, and the others at a hundred dollars each, provided by the government, are adjudged by the society to those females who have most distinguished themselves by good moral conduct, industry, and filial affection. These prizes have been distributed annually since the esta-

lishment of the society, and have had much influence in improving the moral and industrious habits of the community. The zeal and uniform constancy with which the ladies connected with this institution have discharged the duties intrusted to them reflect the highest credit on their patriotism and active benevolence, and have already conferred important and lasting benefits on their country.

In 1830 a commission was appointed by the government to investigate the actual state of education in all its various departments throughout the province. An able and judicious report was given in on the 16th March, pointing out numerous defects in the system pursued at the different establishments for education, and suggesting various improvements calculated to render them more efficient, and to place the different departments in greater harmony and accordance with each other, and under a more efficient and responsible superintendence, than heretofore. Primary instruction, consisting of reading, writing, arithmetic, grammar, and the elements of morals and religion, was to be general and obligatory on all the inhabitants. Scientific instruction, consisting of preparatory studies and philosophy, physical and mathematical sciences, medicine, jurisprudence, and theology, was to be optional but gratuitous to all the youth of the country. This report was approved of by the authorities, and is now in course of being carried into practice. These regulations do not apply to any other seminaries of education, excepting those supported at the public expense. No interference, however, has taken place in the department of female education, which still continues under the efficient superintendence of the Society of Beneficence.

In 1811 a public library was formed in Buenos Ayres, by the late Dr Mariano Moreno, one of the most influential persons in effecting the revolution of 1810. At first it contained only 12,000 volumes; but in 1822 it had increased to about 20,000. It has been well selected and regulated, while every convenience and accommodation has been provided for those desirous of consulting the works which it contains. Books of all kinds have free admission into the country on the payment of a small duty, and have of late been imported in considerable quantities from France and England; evincing the increased desire for information which has extended itself over the country. Nothing, however, tends so much to demonstrate the advances made in intellectual pursuits by the inhabitants, as the great activity of the periodical press of Buenos Ayres. The newspapers are numerous, and generally well conducted. They contain much local information connected with statistics and commerce, numerous advertisements, and intelligence from other countries, more especially from the various New South American states. Three daily newspapers are at present published in Buenos Ayres, one of which has existed for eight years. There are various others published once, twice, or three times a week, among which are one in the French and two in the English language; one of the latter, the British Packet, having been published during the last six years. The free and unrestricted liberty of the press was established in 1821, and thereafter exercised in its fullest extent until 1828, when party spirit having become greatly excited, some publications displeasing to the existing authorities made their appearance, and led to the enactment of various restrictions on the freedom of discussion. Trials for offences of the press have in consequence since taken place, and no publications expressing opinions at variance with the policy of the ruling authorities have been allowed to make their appearance, while much difference of opinion has been known to exist. The preceding administration pursued a very different policy, and imposed no restrictions, but trusted to public opinion for a refutation of any calumnies raised against them. The tranquillity, contentment, and prosperity which

Buenos Ayres prevailed at Buenos Ayres previous to 1828, when contrasted with the scenes which have followed, sufficiently demonstrate the great importance of allowing the utmost liberty in the expression of opinions on political matters.

Among the literary productions which have issued from the press may be enumerated the historical work of Dean Funes, in which are detailed all the events connected with the revolution and the war of independence; some dramatic productions of Varela; and recently there has been published a collection of Buenos-Ayrenean poetry, which is highly creditable to the talents and imaginative powers of the inhabitants. Among these the national ode written by the distinguished Don Vicente Lopez, the present minister for foreign affairs, particularly merits distinction. A statistical register was established in 1822, under the auspices of government, and published monthly for several years, containing the most minute and circumstantial statistical details. A literary society was also established, which, during its continuance, published periodically the *Albion Argentina*, a work containing much scientific and useful information. A topographical society was formed, and the labours of its members have been most useful in fixing the limits of property throughout the province, the greater portion having been scientifically surveyed under its direction. Plans and maps of the various districts have been constructed, and some of them published. The results of the whole, and a general map of the republic, will, it is expected, be soon published under the able auspices and superintendence of the members of this department. No sale or transfer of property can now take place in the province without a previous survey of it being made to the satisfaction of this department.

Laws. Few alterations have been made in the Spanish laws which regulated these countries; and these have been principally for the purpose of rendering them more applicable to the new political condition of the country. Their administration has, however, been much improved; judges have been made independent in the exercise of their functions; and justices of the peace, to take cognizance of all cases in the first instance, have been established in the city and all parts of the provinces, each being resident in the centre of his district for the administration of justice; an institution which has been attended with the most satisfactory results. The administration of justice is still, however, very defective in many respects. The plan of a new system has been prepared by the *Camara de Justicia*, which, it is expected, will be adopted; but it is objectionable in as far as it does not admit of *visu rove* evidence. All offences committed by the press are decided by the verdict of a jury, but no law has yet been made to regulate the impartial selection of persons qualified to sit on such juries; they have hitherto been chosen by the government, a power which appears very liable to abuse. The law of primogeniture does not exist in this country, the property of each parent, on his or her decease, being divided equally among all the children; an additional share, however, may be reserved and bequeathed by the parent to such of the children as may have been most deserving of such a distinction.

Religion. Since the commencement of the revolution this country has been deprived of the services of the Bishop of Buenos Ayres, who was a suffragan of the see of Lima. On that occasion the government assumed to itself the authority of the head of the church, the pope having repeatedly refused to acknowledge their independence, or to interfere in their church affairs; and it authorized an ecclesiastical senate to exercise these functions, which it did until the 23d March 1831, when, in consequence of his holiness having acknowledged the independence of the republic, Dr Don Mariano Medrano was selected from a list of two submitted to him for that purpose on the part of the go-

vernment, and created Bishop of Aulon and apostolic vicar of the diocese of Buenos Ayres; and he has since been formally recognized as the head of the Catholic church of the Argentine republic. The authority has been transferred to him which had been previously exercised by the ecclesiastical senate under the auspices of government; but this transfer was not accomplished without considerable resistance on the part of that body. The long-continued suspension of all direct connection between his holiness and the church of Buenos Ayres has broken asunder the link which formerly bound them so closely together; and the general diffusion of education and intelligence has produced important changes on the public mind, which will prevent the Catholic church from ever again attaining that ascendancy in this country which it once possessed.

During the early part of the revolution, the Catholic clergy, from their activity and influence over the community, exercised a considerable, and often pernicious influence in the politics of the country, being generally opposed to the introduction of improvements of every kind. It became, therefore, a primary object with the government, in its endeavours to remodel the political institutions of the country, to liberate itself from this source of distraction. Accordingly, most rigorous measures were pursued to introduce extensive reforms in ecclesiastical affairs. A board was named to take possession of the rents of the convents, and to examine the inmates and internal economy of these establishments; all convents were abolished which contained less than sixteen or more than thirty inmates; the retiring members of the suppressed convents were allowed a yearly salary, and permission to proceed to whatever place they might choose; and no friars were allowed to enter the province, without previously obtaining special permission from the government, while every difficulty was at the same time thrown in the way of further seclusion, by restricting the age of profession to twenty-five, and to those obtaining a license from the government. By these means many convents were suppressed, and their chapels converted into parish churches; and, under the new regulations, the service of the church has been performed with an efficiency and splendour previously unknown. The tithes were abolished, and funds provided by the state for the expense of the churches; and the salaries of the dignitaries and other ministers of the Catholic church were judiciously regulated. These measures of reform were carried forward with much vigour, and powerfully aided by the Centinella, a well-conducted periodical, instituted for the express purpose, and which exercised much influence on public opinion. These exertions proved so completely successful, that at the present time not more than one or two convents are in existence at Buenos Ayres, and the greater part of the friars who have not become secular clergy have left the province. Two nunneries still exist in this city, but their inmates do not increase in number; on the contrary, facilities have been afforded to those nuns who were dissatisfied with their life of seclusion, to liberate themselves from their vows, and to leave these establishments; a privilege which has already been taken advantage of in some instances.

Since the commencement of the revolution a spirit of toleration has been forming at Buenos Ayres, and becoming stronger in proportion as their intercourse with foreigners became more extended; and it was so much strengthened by those vigorous proceedings of the executive in reforming the ecclesiastical affairs of the country, that at length the government were enabled to establish toleration legally, which had previously existed only by sufferance. In concluding a treaty with Great Britain, on the 2d of February 1825, it was provided that no British subjects resident in the united provinces of the Rio de la Plata

Buenos Ayres shall be disturbed, persecuted, or annoyed on account of their religion, but have perfect liberty of conscience and of public worship; the government reserving the right of formally approving of the formation of all places of public worship. This article of the treaty was sanctioned by all the members of the congress of the United Provinces, including eight of the secular clergy, with only two dissentient voices.

On the 12th of October of the same year the provincial legislature of Buenos Ayres enacted the following law in favour of religious toleration, which was sanctioned by the government, and has ever since been in operation. "Every individual in the province of Buenos Ayres shall enjoy the inviolable right of worshipping Almighty God in the manner which his conscience may dictate to him; and the exercise of this religious liberty shall only be subject to the regulations which are prescribed by good morals, public order, and the established laws of the country." That practical toleration fully exists in Buenos Ayres, is proved by the existence there of one Protestant Episcopal church, two Presbyterian chapels, two Sabbath evening schools, and a Bible society.

Since the administration which accomplished these important changes in the religious institutions of this country ceased to exercise its functions, its successors have relaxed somewhat in the strictness with which the regulations were enforced, and some indications have been given of a desire to restore, in some respects, the exclusive system which formerly prevailed, but fortunately with little prospect of success; for the measures of ecclesiastical reform previously adopted were too efficient, and pursued with too much vigour and success, and the inhabitants have become too intelligent ever again to submit to the religious thralldom to which they were formerly subjected.

Manners and customs.

The manners and customs of the inhabitants of Buenos Ayres have undergone many remarkable changes since the country became independent. The general diffusion of education and intelligence, the extensive intercourse maintained by its inhabitants with other nations, and the influence and example of the numerous foreigners who have been temporary or permanent residents among them, have all powerfully contributed to improve their moral, intellectual, and social condition, and to place them in a position more in accordance than formerly with the present state of civilization in other parts of the world. In these respects they have made greater progress than any other of the new states, and exercise an extensive and beneficial influence on the moral and political opinions of their contemporaries all over the South American continent. The natives of Buenos Ayres are active, intelligent, and enterprising, and may be met with in most parts of South America, engaged in commerce, agriculture, and other branches of industry. They are polite and affable in their manners, sober and temperate in their habits, and possess considerable vivacity and good natural abilities; they are, however, not remarkable for intense application or perseverance, but rather fickle, and prone to novelty, owing perhaps to the circumstance of their having lived in times so fraught with change and innovation; and this tendency is evinced in a variety of ways. They are fond of dress, and set the fashions to the other provinces, where, notwithstanding they are imitated, they are often held up to ridicule for their attention to external appearances. Being now more occupied than formerly in useful and rational pursuits, they are less addicted than heretofore to gambling and other demoralizing amusements. The diversions of the carnival have been discontinued; the cruel practice of cock-fighting has lost much of the interest and importance it once possessed; and bull fights have long since been abolished, as tending to brutalize the feelings of the community, and unworthy of a civilized nation.

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The ladies, however, are by far the most interesting part of the community in this city. They possess the black eyes, delicate features, and handsome figures of Spain, and know well how to set off their charms to the greatest advantage, by the neatness and elegance of their attire and the gracefulness of their carriage while on the promenade. They are affable and unassuming in their manners, and possess great vivacity, but tempered with so much suavity of demeanour as tends to diffuse a charm over their society, which is very attractive, especially to foreigners, who are generally well received. Their evening parties, or *tertulias*, which are exceedingly agreeable, are frequent and well attended; they are diversified by conversation and a variety of amusements, and generally enlivened by music and dancing, in which they excel. The Spanish costume has now nearly become obsolete, and their dresses are generally modelled after the French and English fashions.

The ladies of Buenos Ayres have in many instances formed matrimonial alliances with the foreigners settled amongst them, and have, with few exceptions, proved most amiable and exemplary wives. The social and domestic habits of the strangers, especially those from Great Britain, give them in many instances a decided preference over their own countrymen in the estimation of the fair sex of Buenos Ayres, as the latter are much more in the habit of passing their leisure and evening hours in the coffee-houses, or in other society, than in the midst of their own families.

The peasantry or *gauchos* of Buenos Ayres have many remarkable peculiarities in their character, arising from their manner of living and the occupations in which they are principally engaged. They pass the greater part of their time in the open air, and are almost continually on horseback. Their horses are saddled in the morning, and kept in readiness for use during the whole day, as no one in this country ever thinks of walking even a short distance on foot. They are rather indolent in their domestic habits. They live in rude habitations formed of mud and reeds, possessing very few conveniences, and only some rude articles of furniture. Their food principally consists of beef, besides which they possess few luxuries; yet seem very happy and well contented with their situation, having few external wants, and enjoying a considerable extent of personal liberty and independence. They are kind and hospitable to strangers, courteous in their manners, and often possess many estimable qualities.

Crimes of an atrocious nature, such as murder and robbery, rarely occur among them. Such deeds have occasionally been perpetrated during the civil dissensions, but have in almost every instance been committed by deserters from the army, and not by the peasantry of the country. As an evidence of the confidence which is with justice reposed in their honesty, may be adduced the well-known fact, that, until a late period, couriers and others have been in the constant practice of carrying quantities of gold and silver from Chili, Bolivia, and the interior provinces, to Buenos Ayres; and although generally alone and unattended, very few instances have occurred of their having been robbed or maltreated. Travellers, both natives and foreigners, are continually traversing the country in all directions, and have in general enjoyed the same immunity.

The *gauchos* are all trained from their earliest years in the art of horsemanship, and acquire great dexterity in the management of their steeds and in the performance of all the evolutions practised on horseback. The throwing of the noose or *lazo*, and the *bolas*, at full speed, is generally performed with so much precision and certainty, that the animal they are in pursuit of seldom escapes. But to perform these feats in perfection requires much practice

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and early training. It is customary to see little boys employing their nimble *lunas* and *bolos* in catching dogs, cats, poultry, and other small animals. In some parts of the country young boys first acquire the art of riding by being mounted on sheep, which are equipped with miniature saddles and bridles, and are rendered docile and easily managed by feeding them occasionally with salt, and otherwise treating them with care and kindness. Parties of boys may occasionally be seen proceeding to or from school mounted on these little chargers, and vying with each other in the performance of races and other equestrian exercises. A *ganchoso* fully accoutred and mounted on horseback is one of the most independent persons imaginable, as he carries along with him almost every thing requisite to supply his immediate wants. The saddle is not only useful during the day-time, but at night serves all the purposes of a bed, and the majority of the peasantry never use any other. It consists of two portions formed of tanned leather; the largest is spread out on the ground, and the other part serves as a pillow. The *jergas* or coarse woollen blankets which are manufactured in the country, and some prepared sheep-skins, which are placed underneath and over the saddle when riding, serve all the purposes of blankets during the night, with the addition of the *poncho*. When on a journey, or employed at a distance from their habitations, they carry a supply of provisions in a pair of *alforjas*, or small woollen bags, and water in a pair of *chifles* or bullock's horns slung across the saddle. While on horseback they carry the *luno*, coiled up and ready for use, one extremity being attached to an iron ring on one side of the saddle, and the *bolos* to the other side; by these means they often supply themselves with game and other articles of food when necessary. The *luno* serves to secure their horses during the night, or they use two small portions of hide attached to each other, which are fastened to the horse's fore legs, and are removable at pleasure: this contrivance permits them to feed, but not to stray to a distance. The Spanish bit or bridle is universally used in this country, and is considered as more secure than any other, giving the rider the most complete command of his horse, and enabling him to perform a variety of evolutions on horseback with great dexterity and precision. Their reins are formed of plaited hide, and variously ornamented; they are lengthened out so as to serve the purposes of a whip and other uses to the rider. The girths of their saddles are formed principally of a network of hide, into the meshes of which the rider can at pleasure entangle the large blunt rowels of his spurs, when requiring to secure a firm seat on his horse on making any unusual or difficult exertion.

The dress of the *gaucho* consists of a short jacket, with breeches or drawers open at the knees. A woollen or leathern belt is worn round the loins, to which they secure a large knife inclosed in a sheath, and a pouch containing tobacco, and the *yacupero* or tinder-box, usually formed of the tail of the armadillo. Their feet and legs are protected by *botas de potro*, or boots formed from the skin of the hind legs of the horse or mare, to form which, the skin is cut round in the middle of the thigh, and above the fetlock, and then stripped off; the hair is removed by the knife, and in its moist and pliant state is drawn over the leg and foot, to adapt itself in drying to the shape of the limb, the upper part forming the leg of the boot, the bend at the knee being fitted to the heel, and the lower part covering the foot. They generally wear a handkerchief tied round the head, with the corners hanging down to keep them cool, and to avoid the annoyance of mosquitoes in warm weather; over it is worn a small straw hat. The *poncho*, which is universally worn as an outer garment, is a most useful and convenient article of dress, especially

on horseback, as it covers the whole of the trunk of the body, leaves the arms free, and, when of good quality, throws off the rain. It is composed of a cotton or woollen cloth, woven by the Indians, and is sometimes very handsome, from the tasteful display of the rich colours employed in its formation. Ponchos are from six to eight feet in length, and four or five in breadth, having in the centre a slit sufficient to allow the head to pass through; and they fall down in graceful folds before and behind, being variously ornamented along the edges. The value and richness of the clothing and horse accoutrements of the *gauchos* vary considerably, according to the wealth and taste of the individual, some indulging in silver spurs, and various ornaments for their horses of the same metal, but all of them partaking more or less of the same general character.

It is not intended on this occasion to give an account Political of the political history of Buenos Ayres, which with more propriety will merit consideration in the article La Plata; a few observations, however, on this subject are requisite to illustrate the present state of the country.

During the first years of independence, little progress was made in organizing the government, or in establishing the political institutions of the country on an efficient basis. The measures had recourse to from time to time were more calculated to serve temporary purposes than to produce permanent results. A variety of circumstances conspired to produce disunion and discord among the provinces, the greater part of which were in a state of complete isolation, with separate and independent governments, and by their provincial legislatures enacting laws much more calculated to promote individual and local interests than to favour the general industry and prosperity of the country. From these and other causes they were frequently at variance with each other, and all were more or less inimical to Buenos Ayres, which they viewed with a jealous and invidious eye, on account of its superior wealth, and the greater influence which it exercised in all public affairs. The authorities of Buenos Ayres were implicated in a plan to give a new form to the government, by the introduction of a foreign prince from Europe; but they completely failed in the attempt, not, however, without causing great excitement among the inhabitants, which terminated in civil war at Buenos Ayres and the adjoining provinces. These occurrences, however, interrupted the commerce with the interior, and occasioned great loss of life and property. During the year 1820, when these transactions took place, the changes in the government of Buenos Ayres were frequent, and the authority assumed was in some instances of very ephemeral existence; but this state of affairs was brought to a termination in October of the same year, by the forcible entrance into the city of the party under the direction of Don Martio Rodriguez, who was soon afterwards elected governor of the province of Buenos Ayres.

Under his auspices was formed an efficient and enlightened administration, composed of individuals well qualified to discharge the important duties intrusted to them, and unobjectionable to all parties, as they had been some time absent in the service of their country, and had taken no part in the political disputes which had previously divided the inhabitants. Don Bernardino Rivadavia, who had been in Europe on a diplomatic mission, and had become conversant with the institutions of those nations farthest advanced in civilization, became the leader of the new executive, and by the activity and energy of his character infused a degree of vigour into all their proceedings, which inspired general confidence, insured the ultimate success which so eminently attended their labours, and conferred important and lasting benefits on their country.

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The aspect presented by the various provinces at this period offered little prospect of success in any attempt to form an efficient general government by the union of such discordant materials. It was therefore deemed expedient, in the first place, to use every exertion to introduce an improved internal organization into all the provinces, although still in a state of separation, and more especially into the city and province of Buenos Ayres, by far the most important and influential in every point of view, and the best calculated by its example to produce beneficial consequences in all the interior provinces.

The attention and active energies of the new government of Buenos Ayres were therefore principally directed to remodel and improve the various moral and political institutions of the city and province, and the changes introduced were principally the following:—The provincial legislature was formed of representatives elected by the direct suffrages of the citizens; the persons and property of every one, foreigner as well as native, were rendered inviolable; and no imposts or contributions of any kind were allowed to be imposed, or any of the public funds to be expended, except by authority of the legislature. Publicity was given to all the proceedings of the legislature and of the government; and the public accounts of all the departments were published at stated periods. The imposition and collection of the public revenue were regulated on judicious principles, so as not only to augment the amount of the revenue, but effectually to put an end to the extensive contraband which had previously prevailed. The public expenditure was regulated on the most economical principles. The military officers, and others who had devoted themselves to the service of their country, were rewarded according to their respective merits and services. The debts due by the state were consolidated, and means provided for their gradual extinction. Afterwards, when circumstances had led to the accumulation of new debts, the sale of all public lands was prohibited, and they were preserved as a guarantee for the ultimate payment of the public debts. These lands, however, were not kept in an unproductive state, but rendered available for agricultural purposes by a judicious system of leasing. The administration of justice was also greatly improved, and rendered more efficient. The police and other municipal establishments were remodelled or improved, and rendered much more efficient than previously. Education in all its branches was encouraged and promoted, every facility being afforded to the general diffusion of knowledge. The liberty of the press was established and guaranteed to the community. Various important reforms in the church establishment were satisfactorily accomplished, and the enjoyment of complete religious liberty was established by law. Industry and enterprise were promoted, and every encouragement was given to the ingress of industrious persons from other countries. Savings banks were instituted to assist the industrious in the accumulation of their savings. The formation of roads, bridges, canals, and various other public undertakings of acknowledged utility and importance, was commenced and prosecuted.

Much energy, zeal, and perseverance, were exemplified by the government and their supporters in the prosecution of these beneficent plans for ameliorating the institutions of this country, and in their progress they were powerfully aided by the publicity given to all their transactions, which diffused general confidence; and by the judicious use of the periodical press, public opinion was prepared for the reception of these innovations. Tranquillity prevailed at this period over all the provinces, and a marked improvement took place in the general prosperity of the country, not only in the city where it commenced, but throughout the other provinces, where the example of

Buenos Ayres exercised a great and beneficial influence. In these the progress of Buenos Ayres towards improvement was watched with much interest and attention, and the valuable productions of its press were received with the utmost avidity. The patriotic feelings of the inhabitants of the provinces were much excited by these occurrences, and the more intelligent among them directed their attention to the most effectual means of profiting by the example given them by their neighbours; accordingly, in some of the provinces, considerable progress was made in the improvement of their local institutions and government.

On 1st April 1824 some changes took place in the government. Rodriguez, having completed the legal period of his service as governor, was replaced in that office by General Las Heras. On that occasion Rivadavia, although repeatedly urged to continue his services, retired from office and went to Europe, leaving in the entire charge of the executive government his colleagues Don Manuel Jose Garcia and General Cruz, who, equally zealous and interested in the success of the measures which had been adopted, did not relax in their exertions to give them permanency. The improved state of the provinces, and the desire evinced by them for a general union, indicated the time as propitious to the formation of a general government. The authorities of Buenos Ayres therefore sent commissioners to the various provinces to make the preliminary arrangements; deputies were assembled from all the provinces; and the national constituent congress was formally installed at Buenos Ayres on the 16th December 1824.

The independence of these provinces had been already acknowledged by the United States of North America and Brazil; but on the 2d February 1825 Great Britain also conferred on them this important act of justice, by concluding with the government of Buenos Ayres a treaty of amity, commerce, and navigation, which was approved of and sanctioned by the general constituent congress, and was hailed with general satisfaction, from its connecting them so closely with one of the most powerful European states, and giving the new republic a respectable status among civilized nations. In the arrangement of this treaty much advantage was derived from the liberality and judicious policy pursued by Garcia, then minister for foreign affairs. Their independence was acknowledged by France in 1830, and by the Pope in the following year.

So many innovations in the institutions of Buenos Ayres as those which have been enumerated could scarcely fail to produce opposition on the part of those persons whose interests or prejudices were affected. The clergy in particular, in many instances, made use of the influence they possessed over the prejudices of the people to accomplish this object, and considerably augmented the number in opposition. An attempt was on one occasion made to overturn the administration by violence, and to awaken the religious prejudices of the community by raising the cry that their religion was in danger; but the attempt completely failed. This party did not renew these violent attempts, but still continued their opposition, becoming from various circumstances more numerous and united in their views. During the debates which took place in the national congress, they used their influence to thwart the policy recommended by the government party; and their number being augmented by the accession of many of the provincial deputies, an origin was thus given to the political party which subsequently assumed the name of *federal* (*federalistas*).

A dispute had subsisted during some years between the government of Buenos Ayres and the court of Brazil, in consequence of the occupation of the province of the Banda Oriental by the troops of the latter power; and all

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the efforts of Buenos Ayres to induce them to retire proved ineffectual. During 1825 General Lavalleja landed with thirty-two resolute followers in the Banda Oriental; and having raised the standard against the Brazilians, he was speedily joined by numbers of his countrymen, and defeated his opponents in various engagements. The provincial legislature assembled, and requested that their province might be admitted into the Argentine confederation, which was agreed to by the constituent congress on the 25th October 1825. Upon this ground the emperor of Brazil declared war against Buenos Ayres on the 19th December; an example which was followed, on 3d January ensuing, by the government of Buenos Ayres, with the full concurrence of the congress. About this time Rivadavia returned from Europe, bringing with him from London the ratified British treaty, and was elected president of the Argentine republic on the 7th February 1826 by the constituent congress. The provincial government and legislature were then dissolved, and the duties of the former devolved on the president of the republic.

After prolonged discussion, the new constitution of the Argentine republic was completed, and subscribed on the 24th of December 1826 by all the members of congress. The form of government agreed upon was the representative republican, with unity of regimen; the representatives being to be chosen by direct suffrages of the citizens, the senators and president by electors chosen by the citizens. Each province was to be under a governor chosen by the president of the republic from three persons elected by the inhabitants, and assisted by a council of administration elected by the citizens. To become legal, the constitution required to be approved of by two thirds of the provinces. The final adoption of this constitution, which was considered by competent judges as well suited to the existing state of the country, was at first postponed, and finally prevented, by the active exertions of the federal party in the provinces, and the increasing difficulties and embarrassments of the general government, occasioned by the continuance of the war with Brazil. But this war had been carried on with a degree of success which rendered it very popular with the people. The contest was principally supported from the resources of Buenos Ayres and the Banda Oriental, as they received little assistance, even in men, from the other provinces; those sent from Mendoza and other places having been either intercepted, or so diminished by desertion, encouraged by the federals, that few ever reached their final destination. The scarcity of funds at the disposal of the executive to carry on the war led to the conversion of the private bank of discounts, which had previously prospered, into a national bank; an expedient which soon afterwards produced the most fatal consequences to the credit and prosperity of the country, and produced the great depreciation of the currency formerly noticed.

In April 1827 the government made an effort to terminate the war, by sending Garcia to the court of Brazil to negotiate a treaty of peace under the mediation of the British authorities; but the hopes of the government and of the people were frustrated by Garcia's deviating so far from his instructions as to agree to cede the Banda Oriental to the emperor. This preliminary convention was disapproved of by the president of the republic and the constituent congress, and consequently was never ratified. Although no blame could with justice be attributed to the executive on this occasion, this transaction led to the cessation of that administration which had been paramount in Buenos Ayres for upwards of six years, and had produced such lasting and beneficial consequences to the country. Rivadavia perceiving that, by continuing in office, he could no longer preserve the honour or consult the permanent

interests of his country, voluntarily resigned the presidency on the 27th of June 1827, and his example was followed by all his ministers. All prospect of forming a permanent union of the provinces having now vanished, the congress dissolved itself, and each of the provinces returned to its former state of isolation and self-government.

On renouncing the presidency, Rivadavia retired into private life, and having since principally resided in Europe, he has on no occasion taken part, either directly or indirectly, in the political transactions of his country. His merits as a practical politician, which are of the highest order, will be long held in grateful remembrance by the more thinking part of his countrymen, and will receive due homage from posterity; and the numerous and important institutions which he established and brought to maturity will serve as lasting monuments of his sound judgment and eminent talents. Had the same influence which proved so beneficial in the only province where his authority was ever fully established, been equally extended to the other provinces, they would by this time have undoubtedly presented an aspect of prosperity and contentment which would have formed a striking contrast to their present desolate condition.

Those persons who favoured the policy of Rivadavia, and advocated the adoption of the constitution sanctioned by the congress, were called unitarians (*unitarios*), and at first comprised a large proportion of the wealth and talents of the country; but subsequently they were joined by many others actuated by less pure and patriotic motives, who, in assuming the name, forgot the principles which originally gave rise to the distinction. The spirit of faction and of individual aggrandisement seems principally to have influenced the subsequent proceedings of both parties, and to have given origin to the numerous evils which have befallen their country.

On the resignation of Rivadavia, the management of public affairs was intrusted to Dr Don Vicente Lopez; and the provincial legislature having been assembled, Don Manuel Dorrego was afterwards elected governor of the province, and obtained from the other provinces full powers to manage all their foreign relations. Accordingly, under his government the war with Brazil was brought to a satisfactory termination in the latter part of 1828. On the army being withdrawn from the seat of war, many of the principal officers concerted measures to overturn the influence of the federal party in Buenos Ayres and the other provinces. On the 1st of December 1828, a movement was successfully made by General Lavalle in Buenos Ayres, and hostilities commenced with the ex-governor Dorrego. He was defeated and taken prisoner at Navarro on the 9th, and was shot without trial on the 13th by order of Lavalle. This arbitrary act, which cannot be justified on any principle, was productive of the most fatal consequences, by giving to the civil war that sanguinary and vindictive character which it has since maintained. Lavalle became governor of Buenos Ayres, but had to sustain a contest with the federal party under Don Juan M. de Rosas, who, possessing great influence with the inhabitants of the country, cut off his supplies, besieged him in the city, and at length obliged him to form a convention on the 24th of August 1829, by which Lavalle consented to relinquish the government of Buenos Ayres, and soon afterwards retired to the Banda Oriental. General Paz, an officer distinguished for his public and private virtues, as well as bravery, obtained the entire ascendancy in the central province of Cordova, and was successful in surprising and totally defeating the federal forces opposed to him, on the 25th of February 1830; but he did not, on this occasion, retaliate on his opponents for the great excesses and cruel assassinations they had per-

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perated on the adherents of the unitarian party, more especially at La Rioja and Mendoza.

A period of tranquillity followed the victory of Paz, who thereby obtained for the unitarians the entire ascendancy in all the interior provinces; various attempts were made at conciliation, but without success; and at length both parties commenced preparations for the approaching contest. The civil war again commenced in the early part of 1831, with evident advantage to the federal party, who had at their command all the resources of Buenos Ayres, and numerous adherents among the peasantry. An accidental occurrence greatly contributed to increase the influence and power of the federals, and to dispirit their opponents; for on the 10th of May General Paz, while engaged in reconnoitering the positions of his adversaries, was taken prisoner by a small party placed in ambush. Soon afterwards General Quiroga carried the war into the provinces of Cuyo and La Rioja, and was successful in all his rencontres with the unitarians. He followed up his advantages, the unitarians retiring from Cordova to the province of Tucuman; and having met each other at Ciudadela, in that province, on the 4th of November, an obstinate and sanguinary battle ensued, in which the unitarians were totally defeated and dispersed. Thirty-nine of the principal officers, who were afterwards taken prisoners, were shot by order of Quiroga, and the remainder escaped into the province of Salta.

The war was at length brought to a conclusion on the 4th of December 1831, by means of a convention formed between Quiroga and the authorities of Salta, in which it was expressly provided that all the unitarian officers should be obliged to leave the Argentine Provinces. Thus has terminated the civil war which prevailed with more or less violence during the last three years; covered these fine provinces with desolation and bloodshed; interrupted the progress of industry in all its branches; paralyzed the commerce with the interior; and greatly diminished the commercial intercourse of Buenos Ayres with other countries. The civil war has not, however, been the only cause of the depressed state of agriculture and commercial industry at Buenos Ayres; the long-continued drought which has prevailed throughout the province during nearly the whole of the last three seasons has been much more fatal in its consequences, as it has occasioned the total failure of the crops, and the destruction of multitudes of cattle, horses, and other stock. The latest intelligence from Buenos Ayres, dated 4th April 1832, intimates that this disastrous period had at length happily terminated by copious rains; that tranquillity prevailed in all the provinces; and that, as considerable quantities of produce were coming from the interior, commerce was expected to improve.

It will require some years of tranquillity and good government to restore Buenos Ayres and the other pro-

vinces to their former prosperity; but with a country possessed of so many natural advantages, and a population so elastic and enterprising in their character, that period under ordinary circumstances cannot be far distant. The federal party, who now possess the entire control over all these provinces, will have ample opportunities of proving how far the system of government which they have hitherto advocated is calculated to promote the happiness and prosperity of their country. A treaty of alliance, offensive and defensive, was formed in 1822, between the littoral provinces of Santa Fé, Corrientes, Entre Rios, and Buenos Ayres, the provisions of which, with little interruption, have ever since been maintained. In 1830 this alliance was renewed, each province binding itself to the adoption of the federal system of government. Since the termination of the civil war several of the interior provinces have indicated their desire to unite with these provinces; an example which will probably be soon followed by the remainder. But there are well-founded apprehensions that they will fail in their attempts to establish a federal republic at all similar to that of the United States of North America, which they profess to imitate; all the provinces excepting Buenos Ayres being deficient in population, wealth, intelligence, and the other requisites essential to the establishment of efficient local governments. As an evidence how imperfectly they know their true position and interests, it is sufficient to state that each of the provinces has its own custom-house laws, import and transit duties being imposed on all commodities coming from any of the other provinces. The only prospect of success amidst so many difficulties will be the formation of a greatly modified federation, in which, however unwilling the provinces may be to acknowledge it, the province of Buenos Ayres, from its advantageous position, and its greater wealth and intelligence, must necessarily maintain a decided ascendancy over them; and if tranquillity can be preserved, time and experience will eventually convince them of their true interests, and remove the impediments which have hitherto prevented their union. The present institutions of Buenos Ayres have now existed in full operation during a sufficient time to establish themselves in the good opinion and affections of the community; and no apprehension need be entertained of their permanency, especially during the administration of the present governor Rosas, who has much influence in the province; while by his active endeavours to promote education, to encourage industry, and to civilize the Indians, he has merited the confidence and good will of his countrymen.

Wilcocks's *History of Buenos Ayres*; Brackenridge's *Voyage to South America*; Caldeu's *Travels in South America*; Account of the United Provinces of Rio de la Plata, translated from the Spanish of Nunez; Beaumont's *Travels in South America*; *Memoirs of General Miller*. (v. v.)

BUFFET was anciently a little apartment, separated from the rest of the room by slender wooden columns, for the disposing of china, glass-ware, and other articles. It is now properly a large table in a dining-room, called also a sideboard for the plate, glasses, bottles, basons, &c. to be placed on, as well for the service of the table as for magnificence. In the houses of persons of distinction in France, the buffet is a detached room, decorated with pictures relative to the subject, with fountains, cisterns, and vases. It is commonly faced with marble or bronze.

BUFFET, C. A. D'AUDE, a distinguished writer, born in 1661, became a Jesuit in 1679, and died at Paris in 1737. There are many works by this author, showing deep penetration and accurate judgment. The principal of these

is entitled *Un Cours des Sciences*, or a Course of Sciences, upon principles new and simple, in order to form the language, the understanding, and the heart. Paris 1732, in folio. This collection includes an excellent French grammar upon a new plan, a philosophic and practical treatise upon eloquence, an art of poetry, which, however, is not reckoned the best part of the miscellany, elements of metaphysics, an examination into vulgar prejudices, a treatise of civil society, and an exposition of the proofs of religion; all full of reflections, just as well as new. He was the author of several other works, particularly, 1. *Pratique de la Mémoire artificielle*, Paris, 1715, 4 vols. 18mo.; 2. *Some historical works*, an Introduction to the History of the Sovereign Houses of Europe, an

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Buffon. Abridgment of Spanish History, and an Account of the Origin of the Kingdom of Sicily and Naples; 3. Various treatises on religion and piety. In his *Cours des Sciences* Buffon has anticipated, though he failed to develop and pursue to its consequences, that peculiar system of mental philosophy which resolves all the ultimate principles of belief into the perceptions or suggestions of what is called common sense; and indeed it seems pretty certain that Dr Reid has been indebted to the learned Jesuit for valuable hints on nearly all the purely speculative points treated of in his Intellectual Philosophy.

BUFFON, GEORGE LOUIS LE CLERC, COUNT OF, a celebrated naturalist, was born at Montbard, in Burgundy, on the 9th of September 1707. His father, Benjamin le Clerc, was a counsellor of the parliament of Dijon, and the son was destined to the same office, if science had not drawn him away from the law. He studied at Dijon; and his eager activity, his acuteness, penetration, and robust constitution, fitted him to pursue business and pleasure with equal ardour. His early passion was for astronomy, and the young Le Clerc was seldom without Euclid in his pocket. At the age of twenty he went with an English nobleman (the young Duke of Kingston) and his tutor to Italy; but he overlooked the choicest remains of art, and amidst the ruins of an elegant and luxurious people he first felt the charms of natural history, of which he afterwards proved the zealous and successful admirer. On his return to France he fought, on some accidental quarrel, with an Englishman, whom he wounded, and was obliged to retire to Paris, where he translated Newton's *Fluxions* from the Latin, and Hales's *Statics* from the English, into the French language. He afterwards went to England at the age of twenty-five, and remained there about three months. This concluded his travels. At the age of twenty-one he succeeded to the estate of his mother, which was valued at about 300,000 livres, or £12,000 sterling; and he was one of those whose easy or affluent circumstances urge them on to literary pursuits, and clear the path of some of its thorns. Perhaps this was the period of his retirement to Montbard, where he spent much time, and where his leisure was little interrupted; for whilst he resided in the capital, his office of intendant of the king's garden and cabinet occupied much of his time. He loved company much, and was partial to the fair; but he loved fate more. He spent fourteen hours every day in study; yet when we examine the extent of his knowledge and the number of his works, we wonder at his having executed so much even in that time. At five in the morning he retired to a pavilion in his vast gardens, and he was then inaccessible. This was, as Prince Henry of Prussia called it, the cradle of natural history; but she was indifferently accommodated. The walls were naked; and an old writing-table, with pen, ink, and paper, and an elbow chair of black leather, were the only furniture of his study. His manuscripts were in a cabinet in another building, and he went occasionally from one to the another. The eras of Buffon's works are pretty well known. When each was finished it was put aside, in order that he might forget it, and afterwards return to it with the severity of a critic. He was anxious to render it perspicuous; and if those to whom he read his works hesitated a moment, he changed the passage. The works of others he often read like Magliabechi, confining himself to the titles, the contents, and the most interesting parts; but he perused M. Neckar's *Compte Rendu*, and the Administration of the Finances, at length, and spoke of them with no little enthusiasm. His favourite authors were Fenelon, Montaigne, and Richardson.

M. de Buffon's conversation was unadorned, rarely animated, but sometimes very cheerful. He was exact in his

dress, particularly in arranging his hair. He sat long at table, and then seemed at his ease. His conversation was at this time unembarrassed, and his guests had frequently occasion to notice some happy turn of phrase, or some deep reflection. His complaisance was very considerable. He loved praise, it is true, and even praised himself; but it was with such frankness, and with so little contempt of others, that it was never disagreeable. Indeed, when we consider the extent of his reputation, the credit of his works, and the attention with which they were always received, we need not wonder that he was sensible of his own value. It would perhaps have displayed a stronger mind to have concealed it. His father lived to the age of ninety-three, and almost adored his son; his grandfather to that of eighty-seven; and the subject of the present article exceeded eighty. He died in April 1788. Fifty-six stones were found in his bladder; and if he had consented to the operation of lithotomy, he might perhaps have lived longer. He left one son, who, near a high tower in the gardens of Montbard, erected a low column, with an inscription, to his memory. This son fell a victim to the tyranny of Robespierre during the reign of terror in France.

BUFFOON, a droll, or mimic, who diverts the public by his pleasantries and follies. Menage, after Salmassius, derives the word from *buffo*, a name given to those who appeared on the Roman theatre with their cheeks blown up; that, receiving blows thereon, they might make the greater noise, and set the people a laughing. Others, as Rhodiginus, make the origin of buffoonery more venerable, deriving it from a feast instituted in Attica by King Erechtheus, called *bufphonia*.

Buffoons are the same with what we otherwise find denominated *scurra*, *gelastini*, *minilogi*, *ministelli*, and *joculatores*, whose chief scene is laid at the tables of great men. Gallienus never sat down to meals without a second table of buffoons by him. Tillemont also renders *pantomimes* by buffoons; in which sense, he observes, the shows of the buffoons were taken away by Domitian, restored by Nerva, and finally abolished by Trajan.

BUG, or BUGOA. See ENTOMOLOGY.

BUGGERS (*Bulgarici*) anciently signified a kind of heretics, otherwise called *Paterini*, *Cathari*, and *Albigenses*. The word is formed from the French *Bougrie*, and that from *Bougria* or *Bulgaria*, the country where they chiefly appeared. Among other errors, they held that men ought to believe no scripture but the New Testament; that baptism was not necessary to infants; that husbands who conversed with their wives could not be saved; and that an oath was absolutely unlawful. They were strenuously refuted by Friar Robert, a Dominican, surnamed the *Bugger*, as having formerly made profession of this heresy. The Buggers are mentioned by Matthew Paris, in the reign of Henry III. under the name of *Bugares*. *Circa dies autem illas incoluit heretica pravorum coetus qui vulgarij dicuntur Paterini et Bugares, de quorum erroribus malo tacere quam loqui.*

BUGIA, a province of the regency of Algiers in Africa. It is almost surrounded with mountains, and peopled with the most ancient Arabs, Moors, or Saracens, called Kobayles. The province is very fertile in corn.

BUGIA, by the Africans called *Bugiacah*, a maritime town of Africa, in the regency of Algiers, and once the capital of the province of that name. It is supposed to be the *Sabtle* of Strabo, built by the Romans. Long. 4. E. Lat. 35. 30. N.

BUGIE, a town of Egypt, situated on the western shore of the Red Sea, almost opposite to Zidon, the port town to Mecca, and about a hundred miles west of it. Long. 36. E. Lat. 22. 15. N.

Buffon
Bogles.

Builder
Building.

BUILDER, in the general sense of the term, an undertaker of works of building. With reference to the operations of civil architecture particularly, the builder stands between the proprietor and architect on the one hand, and the artisan, merchant, and manufacturer on the other: he engages to the first to carry a certain proposed work into execution, as he may be directed by the second, and saves to both of them the trouble and responsibility of procuring materials and employing workmen.

The builder's emolument arises from an improved price, or charges bearing an advance on the prime cost, to remunerate him for the use of his capital, and his own personal application or labour. A builder has the power also of deriving an advantage from the division of labour, by employing artisans in those operations only which habit enables them to execute with the greatest facility.

The builder contracts to do certain specified works for a certain total sum of money, the amount of which he determines by a previous estimate; or to do prescribed operations at so much for a certain fixed quantity of every sort involved, per yard, per rod, per foot, and so on, the amount to be ascertained, when they are completed, by measurement; or he executes works according to instructions or specifications, leaving the charges to be determined according to the usual and accustomed rates, on the quantities ascertained by admeasurement. In the two former cases he is said to work by contract, and in the last by measure and value. For jobbing, in repairs and alterations, a day account is kept; that is, a record of the time workmen are employed, and of the materials used, in performing certain operations. This is made out with an advance of so much per cent. on the prime cost, or wages of the workmen and selling prices of the unwrought materials, for the builder's profit or remuneration, as before stated.

A builder should be theoretically acquainted with the principles of construction, and practically conversant with the details of all the mechanic arts used in building; as well to be enabled to carry on his business with advantage to his own interest, as to the proper execution of the works he may undertake. He should be qualified to ascertain with the utmost minuteness, from the drawings of a design, and the specification of the manner in which, and matter of which, it is to be carried into execution, the quantity of labour, and materials of every kind and description, and the exact value of them all. In this is involved the necessity of being well acquainted with the market prices of raw and manufactured articles to a very great extent, and a matured judgment of the quantity of labour required, or how much time a workman will take to produce a certain result. These things, however, which involve the making of estimates on which to make contracts, in the practice of this country are generally referred to a surveyor or measurer, because of the general ignorance and incompetence of builders, or because of the greater aptitude of the latter, in consequence of their attention being solely occupied by such things.

BUILDING. Any work of civil architecture while in progress is familiarly termed a building. This substantive use of a participial term may be thought to arise from the old habit of contracting an expression if it be long, and using a part for the whole: "*the house or church a building*," that is, in the course of building, or now being built, is more commonly spoken of as "*a building*," or "*the building*." The term is less correctly applied to edifices generally, without reference to their state of completeness or incompleteness; but this use of it should be avoided, as the term thus becomes less definite, and therefore less valuable.

BUILDING.

by Sam. Horsing Esq.

THE art of building comprises the practice of civil architecture, or the mechanical operations necessary to carry the designs of the architect into effect. It is not unfrequently called practical architecture; but the adoption of this term would have tended only to confuse, by rendering it difficult to make the distinction generally understood between architecture as a fine or liberal art, and architecture as a mechanical art. The execution of works of architecture necessarily includes building; but building is frequently employed when the result is not architecture: a man may be a competent builder without being an architect; but no one can profess himself a complete architect unless he be competent to specify and direct all the operations of building. A scientific knowledge of the principles of masonry, carpentry, joinery, &c. and of the qualities, strength, and resistance of materials, though of the utmost importance to an architect, is not sufficient of itself, without a minute acquaintance with a great variety of less ambitious details. Such are those which relate to the arrangement of a plan for the greatest possible degree of convenience on the smallest space, and at the least expense; its transference to the ground; the preparation and formation of foundations; the arrangement and construction of drains, sewers, and cess-pools; the varieties of walling with stone, and of bonding bricks in brick-work; the merit of the various modes of bonding and tying walls with timber and otherwise; the arrangement of gutters on roofs, to get sufficient fall, and to lead the water to the least inconvenient places for placing trunks to carry it down; the arrangement and formation of flues; the protection of walls from damp, of timbers from moisture and

stagnant air, and of metals generally from exciting causes; the cost of materials and labour, and the quantity of each required to produce certain effects. Together with these, it is important to be practically acquainted with all the modes of operation in all the trades or arts required in building. Every thing must be clearly understood, or it will be impossible properly to specify beforehand, in detail, every thing and every operation to be done and performed; and minutely to estimate, beforehand also, the absolute cost involved in the execution of a proposed structure. The power to do the latter necessarily involves that of measuring work, and ascertaining quantities after it is done. These things may certainly be referred to the surveyor or measurer, but they are not the less incumbent on the architect, who cannot be said to be thoroughly master of building, or the practice of his profession, unless he be skilled in these operations.

The architect having furnished the specification and working drawings of his design, the first operation is the preparation of the foundation. (See article *STONE-MASSONRY*, sect. 60.) Much in this particular, it is evident, must depend on localities. It is not of so much importance that the ground be hard, or even rocky, as that it be so constituted as of similar consistence throughout; that it be so constituted as to resist entirely and throughout, or yield equally to the superincumbent weight. In the latter case, however, there must be some contrivance to generalize the pressure, or the piers would sink away from the parts above and below the apertures. This danger is obviated, if the soil be tolerably consistent, by turning inverted arches, as we shall show in its place; or, the soil being too soft to offer resist-

Building. once in the space occupied by a brick, by planking with timber or cast-iron frames, by laying one or more courses of strong thick paving stones, as wide at least as the whole extent of the footings of the walls, and each stone as large as may be; or, what in most cases is by far the best, by laying a compact mass of concreted rubble, sand, and quicklime, which will harden into a solid unbroken bed.

No foundation is more ineligible for a heavy structure than one that is rocky, especially if the rocks are in small masses, or, if a sufficient surface is offered of one mass, in strata which dip considerably: in the former case, from the rottenness of the soil in which rocks are generally bedded, and which consists for the most part of their detritus; and in the latter, from the liability of stratified rock to crack and slip, against which no precaution is available. Dry gravelly soils, again, are not only loose and infirm, but are exceedingly liable to vacuities of various extent, which are hardly sufficiently provided against by piling: a wet gravel is generally more compact, and may be better trusted both with and without piles, or with the concrete here mentioned. A deep compacted sand will be found firm if a sufficient surface of it be embraced by the footings, which should be wider in that than most other cases. In large and deep beds of alluvial deposits the heaviest building may be laid with security, if the precaution before suggested be attended to for the equal distribution of the pressure throughout. The city of New Orleans, in a delta at the mouth of the Mississippi, rests on a bed of mud, which is held together by a bonding of trunks and arms of trees, but on a broad level bed below. Here the only precaution taken in erecting a structure of the greatest magnitude is to make the trenches for the walls wide and level, and to floor the whole of their surface with thick planks properly bonded: on these the footings are laid, and if any settlement occurs, it is of the whole edifice, and no injury accrues to any part of it at any time. Clayey and chalky soils are generally understood to form the best natural foundations: in these, under ordinary circumstances, no preparation is required, though for very heavy and unequally pressing works, such as bridges, which are placed on piers made as small as they possibly can be, piling has been considered a necessary precaution. Indeed, except perhaps on an extensive horizontal bed of firm compact rock, no foundation can be considered better than that afforded by piling in a deep clay. (For the process of PILING, see the article under that head.)

In the ordinary processes of building, however, the artificial preparation of foundations hardly need be considered. Common prudence would refer it to professional management, when such is found necessary; and a work of this kind cannot contain sufficient information and instruction to qualify a man to act professionally on any subject, and more particularly on those subjects which demand initiatory practice and experience. We therefore proceed to the ordinary routine of practice.

The artificers whose trades come within the immediate range of the builder's business are the following: Digger or excavator, bricklayer, mason, slater, sawyer, carpenter, joiner, plasterer, modeller, carver and gilder, plumber, smith, glazier, painter and decorator. Paving is done by the bricklayer or mason, as it may be of brick or stone, and tiling by the bricklayer.

Digger or Excavator.—The digger works with a pickaxe and a spade or shovel. With the pick-axe he breaks down the soil if it be hard or very stiff, and throws it out with the shovel; but compacted sand and alluvial soil is spitted and thrown out with the spade alone, without previous breaking down. In the former case, the digger works onward, or with his work before him, and in the latter backward, or standing on the part to be thrown out, as a gar-

Building. dener does. When rock occurs in a foundation, the assistance of the quarryman is requisite to cut through or blast it, as the occasion may require. The digger must be careful to produce a perfect level in every direction, and especially in trenches for walls; nor may this be done by placing again loose matter, but the level must be produced on the solid or undisturbed bed.

Digger's work is valued by the cubic yard, and is generally made to include, besides excavating, the removal of the soil and rubbish. The price per yard is therefore necessarily contingent on the stiffness of the soil, the depth to which the excavations may reach below the surface, and the distance the stuff is to be removed; so that it is impossible to determine what the cost may be, without reference to each and all of these particulars, most of which must be different in every different place; and all are again affected by the local cost of labour or wages. A good excavator will dig and throw out, of common soil, into a basket or wheel-barrow, eight or ten yards per diem; but of stiff clay or firm gravel, not more than six yards. If the soil is to be carted away from the site of the proposed building, it may be more advantageously basketed out of the foundation, and deposited at once in the cart, whereby the labour of throwing or shovelling a second time is avoided; but if the soil is to be deposited in the immediate vicinity of the site, or thrown into a barge, wheeling is the quicker and more economical operation. The quantity of digger's work is ascertained by multiplying the length of the excavation by its breadth, and their result by the mean depth for cubic feet: these divided by 27 will give the amount in cubic yards.

Bricklayer.—The manufacture of brick being made the subject of a separate article, we need only refer to that for information on the subject, and in the same manner the components and merits of mortars and cements will be found in sections 20 & seq. of the article under the head STONE-MASONRY. A few observations on the composition of mortar for bricklaying will nevertheless be necessary here.

Particular attention must be paid to cleansing the sand to be used for mortar, of every particle of clay or mud that may adhere to or be mixed up with it. Sea sand is objectionable for two reasons: it cannot be perfectly freed from a saline taint, and the particles are moreover generally rounded by attrition, caused by the action of the sea, which makes it less efficient for mortar than if they retained their natural angular forms. Lime should not be slaked until the moment it is to be mixed up with the sand in mortar, but the sooner that is done after it is burnt the better. The proportion of lime to sand is generally taken at one third or one fourth of the whole mass; but if both the materials be of good quality, that is, if the lime slake freely, and become a fine pungent impalpable powder, perfectly clear from argillaceous or any other foreign matter, and the sand clean and sharp, and of variously sized particles, one sixth of lime to sand is quite enough: more is injurious. The ingredients should be well mixed and beaten in a pug-mill, and as little water used as will suffice to make the compound consistent and paste like. Rain, or any other soft water, should be used for the purpose of making mortar, and not spring or hard water, though any other may be preferred to what is brackish even in the slightest degree. When mortar is made, if not immediately used it should be put into a close pit or case; and kept from the air, in which manner it will improve rather than deteriorate, though it be for weeks or even months; if however, the moisture be allowed to evade, it will set and be spoiled. When taken out to be worked up, it should be again well beaten, and wetted sufficiently to work freely, but no more: nor should it be re-made in this manner

Building. in larger quantities than are required for immediate or daily use. A quick-setting cement, such as that which is most commonly used in building in this country, and known as Parker's or Roman cement, can only be mixed or gauged as it is required for use. A bricklayer will keep a labourer fully employed in gauging cement for him alone. It is mixed with sand in the same manner that lime is in common mortar, in the proportion of about three or four of sand to one of cement, according to the quality of the latter; and the labourer, as he gauges on one board, supplies the mixture to the bricklayer fit for use on another board, a spade at a time: it must then be applied within half a minute, or it sets and is spoiled.

The average size of bricks in this country is a fraction under nine inches long, four and a half wide, and two and a half inches thick; and as their magnitude is limited by law, or rather by the duty imposed by law, the variation cannot be great. In consequence of this uniformity of size, a wall of this material is described as of so many bricks in thickness, or of the number of inches which result from the multiplying of nine inches by any number of bricks; a nine inch or one brick wall; a fourteen inch wall, or of one brick and a half (13½ inches would be more correct, in fact; for although a joint of mortar must occur in this thickness, yet the fraction under the given size of the brick is enough to form it); eighteen inch or two bricks, and so on. A half-brick wall is not, or ought not to be, known, except in partitions to fill in between quartering or upright timbers, when it is called brick-nogging; and then not more than six courses are laid without being bonded by a piece of wood, called an intertie, skew-nailed at each end to the quarters: brick-nogging is either flat or on edge, as the partition may be ½ or 2½ bricks thick.

The great art in bricklaying is to preserve and maintain a bond, to have every course perfectly horizontal, both longitudinally and transversely, and perfectly plumb; which last, however, may not mean upright, though that is the general acceptance of the term, for the plumb-rule may be made to suit any inclination that it is wished the wall may have, as inward against a bank, for instance, or in a tapering tower; and also to make the vertical joints recur perpendicularly over each other: this is vulgarly and technically called keeping the *perpenda*. By bond in brickwork is intended that arrangement which shall make the bricks of every course cover the joints of those in the course below it, and so tend to make the whole mass or combination of bricks act as much together, or dependently one upon another, as possible. The object of this will be understood by reference to the diagram, fig. 1. Here it is evident, from the arrangement of the bricks, that any weight placed on *a* would (supposing, as we are obliged to suppose, that every brick feels equally, throughout its whole length, a stress laid on any part of it) be carried down and borne alike in every course from *b* to *e*; in the same manner the brick *d* is upborne by every brick in the line *ef*, and so throughout the structure. But this forms a longitudinal bond only, which cannot extend its influence beyond the width of the brick; and a wall of one brick and a half or two bricks thick, built in this manner, would, in effect, consist of three or four half-brick-thick walls, acting independently of each other, as shown in the plan at *i*, in the diagram, under fig. 1. If the bricks were turned so as to show their short sides or ends in front, instead of their long ones, certainly a compact wall of a whole brick in thickness would be produced; but the longitudinal bond would be shortened one-half, as at *g* *e* *h*, and a wall of any greater thickness, in the same manner, must be composed of so many independent one-brick walls, as at *h*, in the plan before referred to. To obviate this, to produce a transverse, and yet preserve a good longitudinal, bond,

Plate
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the bricks are laid in alternate courses of headers and stretchers, or of ends and sides, as shown in fig. 2, thus combining the advantages of the two modes of arrangement *a b c* and *g e h* fig. 1, in *a b c* fig. 2. Each brick in fig. 2 showing its long side in front, or being a stretcher, will have another lying parallel to it, and on the same level, on the other side, to receive the other ends of the bricks showing as headers in front, which in their turn bind, by breaking the joint between them, as shown in the end of such a wall at *d*. Thus a well-bonded nine-inch or one brick wall is produced. The end elevations of the same wall at *e* and *f* show how the process of bonding is pursued in walls of one and a half and two bricks thick, the stretcher being abutted in the same course by a header; thus, in a fourteen-inch wall inverting the appearance on the opposite sides, as seen at *e*, and producing the same appearance in an eighteen-inch wall, as at *f*. In the diagram under fig. 2, at *g*, is the plan of a fourteen-inch wall, showing the headers on one side and the stretchers on the other, and at *h* is the plan of the course immediately above it, in which the headers and stretchers are inverted; at *k* and *i* are shown, in the same manner, the plans of two courses of an eighteen-inch wall. This is called English bond. Thicker walls are constructed in the same manner by the extension of the same principle.

But a brick being exactly half its length in breadth, it is impossible, commencing from a vertical end or angle, to make a bond with whole bricks, as the joints must of necessity fall one over the other. This difficulty is obviated by cutting a brick longitudinally into two, or transversely into four, equal parts, making half headers. One of these is placed next to a whole header, inward from the angle, and forms with it a three-quarter length between the stretchers above and below, thus making a regular overlap, which may then be preserved throughout: these half headers are technically termed *closers*. (See the joints in the heading courses next the upright angle of the wall fig. 2, and the first joints inwards from the square ends by the headers in the plans at *g* and *h*.) A three-quarter stretcher is obviously as available for this purpose as a half header, but the latter is preferred, because, by the use of it, uniformity of appearance is preserved, and whole bricks are retained on the quoins or angles. In walls of almost all thicknesses above nine inches, to preserve the transverse, and yet not destroy the longitudinal bond, it is frequently necessary to use half bricks; but it becomes a question whether more is not lost in the general firmness and consistence of the wall by that necessity, than is gained in the uniformity of the bond. It may certainly be taken as a general rule, that a brick should never be cut if it can be worked in whole, for a new joint is thereby created in a construction, the difficulty of which consists in obviating the debility arising from the constant recurrence of joints. Great attention should be paid to this, especially in the quoins of buildings, in which half bricks most readily occur; and there it is not only of consequence to have the greatest degree of consistence, but the quarter bricks used as closers are already admitted, and the weakness consequent on their admission would only be increased by the use of other bats, or fragments of bricks.

Another mode of bonding brick-work, which may be supposed to have arisen from the appearance of the ends of a wall according to the former mode of arrangement (see *e* and *f*, fig. 2), instead of placing the bricks in alternate courses of headers and stretchers, places headers and stretchers alternately in the same course, fig. 3. The plans below this at *c* and *d* are of two courses of a fourteen-inch wall, with their bond, showing in what manner the joints are broken in the wall horizontally as well as vertically on its face. This is called Flemish bond. Closers are used

Building. equally to English and Flemish bond, in the same manner, and for the same purpose; half bricks also will occur in both, but what has been said with reference to the use of them in the former applies even with more force to the latter, for they are more frequent in Flemish than in English, and its transverse tie is thereby rendered less strong. Their occurrence is a disadvantage which every care should be taken to obviate. The arrangement of the joints, however, in Flemish bond, presenting a neater appearance than that of English bond, it is generally preferred for external walls when their outer faces are not to be covered with stucco, or plaster composition of any kind; but English bond should have the preference when the greatest degree of strength and compactness is considered of the highest importance, because it affords, as we have already noticed, a better transverse tie than the other, and transverse tie is even more important than longitudinal.

It has been attempted to improve the bond in thick walls, by laying raking courses in the core between external stretching courses, and reversing the rake when the course recurs. This obviates whatever necessity may exist of using half bricks in the heading courses, but it leaves triangular interstices to be filled up with bats, as the diagram fig. 4 shows. This represents the plan of a thirty-six inch or three-brick wall with raking courses at *a*, between external ranges of stretchers, and lying on a complete course of headers, and at *b* a wall of the same thickness herring-boned; courses of headers would bed and cover this also, and, in the second course above, the raking or herring-boning would be repeated, but the direction of the bricks inverted. It will be seen that the latter demands, in addition to the triangular filling-in bats at the outer ends of the diagonally placed bricks, half bricks to fill up the central line of interstices, rendering herring-boning more objectionable in that particular, though it has some advantages over simply raking, or thorough diagonal courses, in some other points. Neither mode should, however, be resorted to for walls of a less thickness than three bricks, and that indeed is almost too thin to admit of any great advantage from it.

Skillful and ingenious workmen are well aware of the necessity of attending to the bond, and are ready both to suggest and to receive and practise an improvement; but generally the workmen themselves are both ignorant of its importance and careless in preserving it, even according to the common modes. Their work should therefore be strictly supervised as they proceed with it; for many of the failures which are constantly occurring may be referred to their ignorance or carelessness in this particular.

Not second in importance to bonding in brick-work is, that it be perfectly plumb, or vertical, and that every course be perfectly horizontal, or level, both longitudinally and transversely. The lowest course in the footings of a brick wall should be laid with the strictest attention to this latter particular; for the bricks being of equal thickness throughout, the slightest irregularity or incorrectness in that will be carried into the superimposing courses, and can only be rectified by using a greater or less quantity of mortar in one part or another, so that the wall will of course yield unequally to the superincumbent weight, as the work goes on, and perpetuate the infirmity. To save the trouble of keeping the plumb-rule and level constantly in his hands, and yet to insure correct work, the bricklayer, on clearing the footings of a wall, builds up six or eight courses at the external angles (see fig. 5), which he carefully plumbs and levels across, and from one to the other. These form a gauge for the intervening parts of the courses, a line being tightly strained from one end to the other, resting on the upper and outer angles of the gauge bricks of the next course to be laid, as at *a* and *b*, fig. 5, and with this

he makes his work range. If, however, the length be great, **Building.** the line will of course sag; to prevent which, it is carefully set and propped at sufficient distances. Having carried up three or four courses to a level, with the guidance of the line, the work should be proved with the level and plumb rule, and particularly with the latter at the returns and reveals, as well as on the face: a smart tap with the end of the handle of the trowel will generally suffice to make a brick yield what little it may be out, while the work is so green, and not injure it. Good workmen, however, take a pride in showing how correctly their work will plumb without tapping. To work which is circular on the plan, both the level and the plumb-rule must be used, together with a gauge-mould or a ranging trammel, to every course, as it must be evident that the line cannot be applied to such in the manner just described. To every wall of more than one brick thick, two men should be employed at the same time, one outside and the other in: one man cannot do justice from one side, even to a fourteen-inch wall. Inferior workmen and apprentices are generally employed as inside men, though the work there is of quite as great importance as exteriorly, except for neatness, and for that only if the brickwork is to show on the outside.

In the operation of bricklaying, the workman holds the trowel in his right hand, and with the left he takes up the bricks from the scaffold, and lays them in their places. Spooning or shovelling up mortar from the board with the trowel, throws it on the course last laid, and with the point strews it over the surface to form a bed for that which he is about to set; whatever bulges or projects over the outer edge of the work below is struck off, and being caught on the flat face of the trowel, is put against the side or edge of the last brick laid in the new course. Then taking up a brick, he presses it down in its place until its upper and outer angle comes exactly to the line; and if this be not readily effected by the hand, a slight drawing blow with the obtuse point of the edge of the trowel does it, or a tap with the end of the handle both draws it and settles it down farther than the hand can press it. The small quantity of mortar that is pressed out in front, by this operation, being struck off, the joints are neatly drawn by compressing the mortar with the point of the trowel, and thus producing a fine smooth surface,—that is, if the work is to be seen; for if it is to be plastered, the rough face is left that the plastering may the more readily attach itself, and the joint is not drawn at all, but the workman proceeds in the same manner with the next brick in advance along the course, or to fill in behind the one he has laid in front to meet the work of his mate on the other side of the same wall. This is the common mode of *laying* bricks. They should not however be merely laid; every brick should be rubbed and pressed down in such a manner as to force the slimy matter of the mortar into the pores of the bricks, and so produce absolute adhesion. Moreover, to make brick-work as good and perfect as it may be, every brick should be made damp, or even wet, before it is laid, otherwise it immediately absorbs the moisture of the mortar, and, its surface being covered with dry dust, and its pores full of air, no adhesion can take place; but if the brick be damp, and the mortar moist, the dust is enveloped in the cementitious matter of the mortar, which also enters the pores of the brick, so that when the water evaporates, their attachment is complete, the retention and access of air being thus altogether precluded. To wet the bricks before they were carried on to the scaffold would, by making them heavier, add materially to the labour of carrying; in dry weather they would, moreover, become dry again before they could be used; and for the bricklayer to wet every brick himself would be an unne-

Building. cessary waste of his time: boys might therefore be advantageously employed to dip the bricks on the scaffold, and supply them in a damp state to the bricklayer's hand. A watering pot with a fine rose to it should also be used to moisten the upper surface of the last laid course of bricks, preparatory to strewing the mortar over it. In bricklaying with quick setting cements these things are of even more importance; indeed, unless the bricks are quite wet to be set with cement, it will not attach itself to them at all.

As mortar is a more yielding material, used in brick-work merely for the purpose of making the detached portions of the staple adhere, by filling up their interstices and producing exhaustion, and the object being to produce as unyielding and consistent a mass as possible, as much of it should be used as is sufficient to produce the desired result, and no more. No two bricks should be allowed to touch, because of their inaptitude to adhere to each other; and no space between them should be left unoccupied by mortar which may produce adhesion. When the bricks are a fraction under two and a half inches thick, no four courses of bricks and mortar, or brick-work, should exceed eleven inches in height; and if they are fully that thickness, four courses should not reach eleven and a half inches. The result of thick beds of mortar between the bricks is, that the mortar is pressed out after the joint is drawn, on the outside, in front; and being made convex instead of slightly concave, the joints catch every drop of rain that may trickle down the face of the wall, and are thus saturated: the moisture freezes, and in thawing bursts the mortar, which crumbles away, and creates the necessity which is constantly recurring, of pointing the joints to preserve the wall. The diagram shows the section of a nine-inch wall, with the joints on the side as drawn, and on the side *b* as hinged, in consequence of the quantity of mortar in them yielding to the weight above. This, too, is in addition to the inconvenient settling, which is the consequence of using too much mortar in the beds.



In practice, bricklayers lay the mortar on the course last finished, and spread it over the surface with the trowel, without considering, or caring for it, that they have put no mortar between the bricks of that course, except in the external edges of the outside joint; that the mortar is not, or ought not to be, so thin as to fall into the joints by its own weight; and that unless they press it down, half the height of the space between the bricks remains in every case unoccupied, and the wall is consequently hollow, compact, and necessarily imperfect. To obviate this, it is common to have thick walls grouted in every course; that is, mortar made liquid, and called grout, is poured on to, and spread over the surface of the work, that it may run in and fill up the joints completely. This, at the best, is but doing with grout what should be done with mortar; and the difference between the two consisting merely in the difference in the quantity of water they contain, mortar must be considered the best; for the tendency of grout is, by hydrostatic pressure, to burst the wall in which it is employed; and, moreover, it must, by taking a much longer time to dry and shrink than the mortar of the beds and external joints, make and keep the whole mass unstable, and tend to injure rather than benefit it. Filling or flushing up every course with mortar is therefore far preferable, and may be done with very little additional exertion on the part of the workmen.

It is a very common thing for two sorts of mortar to be used in the same wall, a finer and whiter for the outside, and a coarser for the inside work; the former made of cleaner and finer sand, and a greater quantity of lime, than

the latter, with the intention of exposing a better looking and more durable material to the view and the weather. The sand, we have already shown, ought to be as clean as it can be made for mortar under all circumstances; therefore there should be no possibility of making a difference in that particular; and the addition of a greater quantity of lime than is necessary to make good mortar makes it less durable, and occasions a sacrifice in an important quality for the sake of an unimportant advantage. Moreover, the mortar which contains the greater quantity of lime will yield or settle more than that which has the greater proportion of sand.

All the walls of a building that are to sustain the same floors and the same roof should be carried on simultaneously; under no circumstances should more be done in one part than can be reached from the same scaffold, until all the walls are brought up to the same height, and the ends of the part first built should be racked back, as at *a*, *b*, fig. 2, and not carried up vertically with merely the toothing necessary for the bond, as at *a*, *b*, fig. 3.

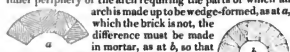
Brick-work should never be carried on in frosty weather, nor even when it is likely that frost will occur before the walls can be covered in and become so dry as not to be affected by frost. Covering an unfinished wall with a thick layer of straw, when frost may supervene, is a very useful precaution; on the straw, weather boarding should be laid, to prevent access of moisture from rain or snow. Merely wet weather may be guarded against by following the directions given above as to flushing every course of the work well up with mortar, so that no interstices be left into which water may insinuate itself, and by covering the walls with boards to act as a coping when the men are not actually at work on them; the joints in the face of a wall that is not to be plastered in any way should be protected in this manner with great care.

In ordinary practice the bricklayer's scaffolds are carried up with the walls, and are made to rest on them. Having built up the walls as high as he can conveniently from the ground, and from a scaffold on trestles perhaps, he plants a row of poles, which vary in height from thirty to forty and even fifty feet, parallel to and at a distance of about four feet six inches from the walls, and from twelve to fourteen feet apart. To these, which are called standards, are attached by means of ropes other poles called ledgers, horizontally and on the inside, with their upper surface on a level with the highest course of the wall yet laid; and on the ledgers and wall short transverse poles called putlogs or putlocks are laid as joists to carry the floor of scaffold boards. These putlocks are placed about six or seven feet apart, according to the length and strength of the scaffold boards; and the ends which rest on the walls are carefully laid on the middle of a stretcher, so as to occupy the place of a header brick, which is inserted when the scaffolds are struck after the work is finished. On the floor of the scaffold thus formed the bricklayer stands, and the materials are brought to him by labourers, in beds, from the ground below, or they are hoisted up in baskets and buckets by means of a pulley wheel and fall. The mortar is placed on ledged boards of about three feet square, placed at convenient distances along the scaffold; and the bricks are strewn on the scaffold between the mortar boards, leaving a clear way against the wall for the workmen to move along unobstructedly. The workman then recommences the operation of bricklaying, beginning at the extreme left of his course, and advancing to the right until he reaches the angle or quoin in that direction, or the place where his fellow-workman on the same side may have begun. Thus he goes on with course after course until the wall is as high as he can conveniently reach from that scaffold, when another ledger is tied to the poles, another row of putlocks laid, and the

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Building. boards are removed up to the new level. The ledger and most of the putlocks, however, remain to give steadiness to the temporary structure, and so on to the full height of the wall, piecing out the poles by additional lengths as may be required. If a scaffold be very much exposed, and run to a great height, it must be braced. This is done by tying poles diagonally across on the outside to the standards and ledgers, and it may be further secured by tying the ends of some of the putlocks to the ledgers; but an outside scaffold should never be attached in any way to the building about which it stands. A scaffold should never be loaded heavily, as well on account of the work as of the scaffold itself; for the putlocks resting, as they do, on single bricks, in a green wall, they exert an injurious influence on it, which every additional pound weight on the scaffold must necessarily increase. A constant and steady supply of bricks and mortar on the part of the labourers, without overloading the scaffold at any one time, should be strictly required. It would indeed be an advantage if every scaffold were made with a double row of poles and ledgers, one being on the inside, within a few inches of the wall. This would obviate the necessity of resting the putlocks on the walls, and do away with putlock holes; but the inner row of poles would be constantly in the way of the bricklayer, who could not either set the bricks or draw the joints so well as if he were unobstructed. Access is given to scaffolds by ladders, and by inclined planes; the former are more commonly used externally, and the latter internally.

Arches in brick-work are plain, rough, cut, or gauged. Plain arches are built of uncut bricks, and the bricks being parallel-pipedons, an arch built of them must be made out with mortar; that is, the difference between the outer and inner periphery of the arch requiring the parts of which an



arch is made up to be wedge-formed, as at *a*, which the brick is not, the difference must be made in mortar, as at *b*, so that the inner or lower angles of bricks used for this purpose should absolutely touch, and the mortar should be more consistent than that used in ordinary walling; nor should the centre on which an arch of this kind is set or built be struck or removed until the work is absolutely dry, or rather all such arches should be set in cement which will dry immediately. In consequence of this inherent defect in uncut-bricks, in extensive continuous works, such as sewers, tunnels, vaults, &c. it is advisable to make them in thin independent rings of half-brick or one brick thick, as the case may be; that is, a nine-inch arch should be in two half-bricks, as at *a*, fig. 6, and an eighteen-inch arch in two one-bricks, as at *b*, each arch in the latter case being bonded in itself as in a common nine-inch wall with headers and stretchers. It is evident that, by this mode of structure, a greater quantity of the solid material comes into the back or outer ring or arch than into the lower one; and if they had been bonded together into one arch, as at *c*, all that difference must have been made up with mortar. Moreover, whatever pressure comes on the outer ring is carried by it directly to the inner or lower, from whose joints, however, the mortar cannot escape or be pressed out, the inner angles of the bricks, by meeting, preventing it below, and the bricks themselves of the upper arch, which conveys the pressure, are themselves opposed to the back of the same joints, so that its power of resistance is made equal to that of the bricks themselves, except at the ends; which, in such works as we have supposed, are remote, and may be protected by the use of cement in their joints, whilst mortar is used in the rest.

Rough arches are those in which the bricks are roughly cut with an axe to a wedge form, and are used over open-

ings, such as doors and windows, when the work is to be Building. plastered on the outside, or in plain back fronts, out-houses, garden-walls, &c. when, however, they are neatly pointed with what is called a tuck or tuck joint. Semi-circular and elliptical arches are generally made plain, or without cutting the bricks; but arches composed of a smaller segment of a circle (vulgarly and technically called *scheme* arches), if not gauged, are cut or axed. Very flat arches are technically distinguished from the quicker segment, or scheme, by the term *camber*, from the French word *cambrer*, to round like an arch. It is arches of this kind which are generally employed over windows and doors in external work, and they too are either cut or gauged.

Gauged arches are composed of bricks which are cut and rubbed to gauges and moulds, so as to form perfectly fitting parts, as in masonry. Gauging is equally applicable to arches and to walling, as it means no more than the bringing every brick exactly to a certain form, by cutting and rubbing, or grinding it to a certain gauge or measure, so that it will exactly fit into its place, as in the finer works of masonry. Gauged brick-work is set in a patty instead of common mortar, but it is seldom used except for resting in the fronts of houses, &c. which are to be neatly finished. These are for the most part straight, and are generally from eleven to twelve inches in depth, or the height of four courses of brick-work. Their value as arches will be best understood by reference to the diagram, fig. 7, by which it appears that all the material between the soffit of the straight arch or head of the opening *b c*, and the dotted line *d f c*, is useless, the intrados or soffit of the really efficient part of the arch being at that dotted line itself. This is the arc of an angle of 60°; its chord, the width of the opening, being the base of an equilateral triangle constructed on it, and the joints are the radii of a circle whose centre is at *a*, *b d* and *c e*, the continuations of the sides of the triangle or radii *a b* and *a c*, are technically termed the skew-back of the arch. Sometimes the arc is made that of a more acute angle, in which case the skew-back is less, that is, the external angles *e b d*, and *b c e*, are less obtuse; a smaller unavailable portion of the arch is thus left between the arc and its chord, but that portion is less securely retained under the flatter segment, because the joints or radii diverge less, or are more nearly parallel. These gauged arches being, as they for the most part are, but a half brick in thickness, and not being tied by a bond to anything behind them—for indeed almost the whole, if not the whole, of their height, is occupied behind by the reveal and the wooden lintel—require to be executed with great care and nicety. It is a common fault with workmen to rub the bricks thinner behind than before, to insure a very fine joint in front, which must tend to make it bow outwards; it should rather be inverted, if it be done at all, though the best work is that in which the bricks are gauged to a perfect parallel in their lateral thickness. Fig. 8 is a transverse section of fig. 7, and the gauged arch, lintel, &c. in it showing the total disconnection of the gauged arch with any surrounding brick-work to which it might be bonded. The absurdity of constructing arches circular on the plan, especially in a thin unbonded shell of bricks, is so clear as hardly to require notice.

Gauged facing to a wall is exceedingly objectionable, unless the bricks used for the gauged work be originally a little larger than those which are to be worked in behind, whose size should be the gauge, otherwise no bond can be kept between the bulk of the wall and its face; and the same mortar or patty should be used throughout, of equal consistence, and with joints of equal thickness, or the work cannot be sound and compact.

Everything relating to the construction of niches, groins, domes, &c. may be referred to the articles ARCH, BRIDGE,

Building. and STONE-MASONRY: the difference between stone and brick, as far as the principle is concerned, being only in the comparative magnitude of the parts; for to make perfect arches, &c. it is clear that the bricks must be cut to the same forms that are required in stone.

It is generally held that nothing but its own components should be admitted into a brick wall, except what is absolutely necessary for its connection with the other parts of a building, such as wall-plates and wood-bricks (and that these should be avoided as much as possible), templates, lintels, &c. Wall-plates are required to receive the ends of the joists, and distribute the weight of the floor to which they belong equally along the walls. If the joists tailed singly on the naked bricks, their thin edges would crush those immediately under them, and the rest of the brick-work would escape immediate pressure altogether. Wall-plates may be superseded by the use of templates; but this involves the necessity of framed floors, which are carried by a few large beams, under whose ends stout pieces of timber three or four feet in length are placed. These are intended, like a wall-plate, to distribute the weight over a considerable part of the wall, and prevent the necessity of placing the beam on the naked friable bricks, and are called templates. Lintels are used over square-headed windows and doors, instead of arches in brick-work. They are useful to preserve the square form and receive the joiner's fittings, but they should always have discharging arches over them, and should not tail into the wall at either end more than a few inches, that the discharging arch be not wider than is absolutely necessary. If, however, discharging arches be not turned over them, the lintels should tail in at each end considerably, and have small templates or wood bricks placed transversely under them, as shown in the diagram, fig. 9. This indicates the elevation of the inside of part of an external wall with a window in it, and shows the lintel over the latter, with a discharging arch over it, and wood bricks under its ends, on the jambs of the opening. Discharging arches should be turned over the ends of beams, and templates also, as in fig. 10. They may generally be quadrants of a circle, or even flatter, and should be turned in two or more half bricks over doors and windows, and other wide openings, but over the ends of beams they need not be in more than one half brick.

Wood bricks are used to prevent the necessity of driving wedges into the joints of brick-work to nail the joiner's work to. They are pieces of timber generally cut to the size and shape of a brick, and worked in as bricks in the inner face of a wall, where it is known the joiners have occasion for something of the kind. This is principally in the jambs of the windows and doors for their fittings, and along the walls, at proper heights, for the skirtings or wainscoting, as the case may be.

The use of bond timber in brick walls is objectionable, because of its liability to shrink and swell, to decay, and to be consumed by fire, in any of which cases the structure to which it belongs is either injured, endangered, or absolutely destroyed. It is, however, valuable to tie the angles of walls, and to distribute the various weights equally throughout the walls, thus tending to prevent irregular settlements, whether arising from any defect in a foundation, or from an extraordinary imposition of weight in any particular part. The objections to bond timber depend on contingencies against which it may be in a great degree protected by care and judicious management. If the timber be of a durable sort, sound and well seasoned, neither shrinking nor swelling need be feared if it be not placed in a damp situation, or where moisture can gain access to it; nor will it decay if it be entirely incased in anything, to the total exclusion of the external atmosphere. If timber be laid in the heart of a wall, it should be well

Building. imbedded in, and flushed round and over with mortar, as Building. we have shown that bricks should be for other reasons; and if it be laid in the face of a wall, it should be only where its exposed face can be effectually protected from access of moisture, as when it is covered by the plasterer. Damage by fire is a remote contingency; and as it may be confidently asserted that bond timber was never the part of a structure in which a fire commenced, except perhaps from some gross misplacement of it, it is moreover the last combustible part that a fire could reach, and therefore, when it is arrived at, almost all the damage that can be done has already accrued. Bond timber certainly may be, and constantly is, exposed to all the cited contingencies; but they generally arise from circumstances which it may be in a greater or less degree protected from. The wrought-iron bars have been recommended as ties in lieu of bond timber; but besides the equal liability of that metal to decay if it be exposed to damp or to a confined atmosphere, bars of it cannot be properly worked up or combined with brick-work; and its susceptibility of changes of temperature renders it far more unfit than timber to be compounded with materials whose greatest merits are firmness, and an inaptitude to change under any circumstances. The fragility of cast iron makes it also exceedingly objectionable as a bond or tie in brick walls.

It will be generally found that a brick wall built with mortar and faced with ashlar has settled inward to a greater or less extent, as the work has been more or less carefully performed. Indeed in the nature of things it cannot be otherwise, unless the brick backing be worked in some cement which sets and hardens at once; for the outer face is composed of a layer of unyielding material, with few and very thin joints, which perhaps do not occupy a fiftieth part of its extent, while the back is built up of an infinity of small parts, with fully one eighth its height of joints, which are composed of material that must both yield to pressure and shrink in drying. Some part of the ill effect attendant on this is obviated by the bond-stones, which tail in or run through the wall, and tend to keep the discordant materials together; but still much of it remains: and besides this, the internal or cross walls, which have no stone in them, will either settle down and shrink away from the external walls, or drag them inward, as they happen to be well or ill bonded or tied. For these reasons, brick-work built in this manner with masonry should be executed with exceedingly well-tempered mortar, made with no more lime than is absolutely necessary to cement the particles of sand together, and the sand again to the bricks, worked as stiff as it can be, and laid in as thin courses as may be to answer the purpose required of it. Above all, work of this kind must not be hurried, but allowed time to dry and shrink as it goes on.

Discharging arches over vacancies having been disposed of incidentally, we have now only to speak of them under openings, in which situation their use is to distribute the superincumbent weight equally over the substructure, or along the foundation, as the case may be. For this purpose the arch is inverted, as shown in the diagram, fig. 14, and by means of it the weight brought down by the piers is carried along the footings, which are thus equally borne upon throughout their whole length. Arches of two half bricks are indicated here, that being sufficient for ordinary purposes, and to develop the principle; in large and heavy works, arches of three half bricks, and even greater, may be judged necessary. Any arc between a quadrant and a semicircle may be used with advantage; but an arc of less than 45° cannot be recommended for the inverted discharging arch under piers. If it should so happen that an old well or cess-pool, that cannot without great inconvenience and expense be filled up with

Building. sound walling, or in some other efficient manner, or other irremediably bad place, occur in a foundation, and fall under a pier, the ground being sound on either side of it, a second discharging arch may be formed under the pier and over the unsound part, resting its legs on, or springing from, the inverted arch under the opening, and on the sound ground, as indicated by the dotted arch in the last quoted diagram, fig. 14.

Not the least important part of the bricklayer's art is the formation of chimneys and other flues. Great tact is required in gathering over properly above the fire-places, so as to conduct the smoke into the smaller flue, which itself requires to be built with great care and precision, that it be not of various capacity in different parts, in one place contracted to a narrow strait, and in another more widely expanded, and so on. With the present imperfect means of cleaning chimney flues, it is absolutely necessary that they be of a certain magnitude, which should be carefully maintained throughout; but it would be better that they were made oval, or with the angles taken off at least, than parallelograms in plan, as the practice is. Chimney flues are plastered or pargetted with a mortar in which a certain proportion of cow-dung is mixed, which prevents it from cracking and peeling off with the heat to which it is exposed. Experiment has proved that a tapering and nearly cylindrical flue of much smaller bore than is now required is the best for carrying away smoke; and with a more humane and more efficient mode of cleaning, such a one would be unexceptionable. Of course, too, the bore should be regulated by the size of the fire-place, or rather by the quantity of smoke to which it is required to give vent.

Sewers and drains which are not cylindrical should be built with concave bottoms, although the sides be parallel and the covering horizontal. The concave channel keeps the stream more together, and enables it the better to carry its impurities along with it; whereas a flat-bottomed drain offers a large surface for the particles of soil to attach themselves to, and the stream of water, being more scattered, is less efficient in force. All drains in houses and in other places where it may be necessary to open them at any time, should be of the form of which *a*, fig. 11, is a section, with a flat covering of stone paving, or large, strong, paving tiles, set and jointed with cement. Gun-barrel drains, as at *b*, are the best in exposed situations, because they are the strongest; but as there is no mode of cleaning but by breaking them up, if they are too long to be raked, they should not be employed except with a considerable fall, and a frequent or constant stream of water through them, as from a pump-trough, rain-water trunks, &c. They are constructed on a barrelled centre, which the bricklayer drags on as he advances with his work, finishing as he goes. Large sewers, which are accessible from the odds by men to clear or remove any accidental obstructions, are best circular or elliptical; the latter of the two is generally preferred, because, in proportion to its capacity, its height is greater; but most frequently the sides of large sewers are made vertical and parallel, with a flat, inverted arch below, and a semicircular head, as at *c*. This form, however, it is evident, is disqualified to resist lateral pressure to any extent; nor indeed is the circular or elliptical sewer secure in its arched form, unless the weight above is sufficient to counteract any force the sides may be subjected to. No drain should have an inclination or fall of less than one quarter of an inch to a foot; and where the stream is infrequent and dull, as much more would be a great advantage. In building drains it is of great importance that proper traps should be constructed to prevent the return of smells and the passage of vermin. At every

sink there should be a bell-trap, and a well-trap within **Building.** that, or near the hither end of the drain. Suppose a drain of the form of that shown at *a*, fig. 11, nine inches wide and nine inches deep, leading from a kitchen or scullery to the common sewer of the house, in which it meets that which comes from the water-closet and other places. The bell-trap in the sink itself will prevent the return of smell when it is constantly in use, but it is liable to be broken and otherwise injured by the ignorance and impatience of servants and others, or it may become dry by evaporation in some situations; it is therefore necessary to have a trap not so liable to contingencies. Let a well be made eighteen inches or two feet in diameter, square or round, and two feet six inches or three feet deep, across and below the level of the drain, as shown in the plan, fig. 12, and longitudinal section of the same, fig. 13; it must be built around with brick, in cement, and be plastered on the inside with the same material, which will make it capable of retaining fluids. Uprightly across this well, and in the transverse direction of the drain, must be placed a sound piece of paving stone, so long that its ends may be inserted in the sides of the well, as shown in fig. 12, and so wide that its upper edge shall touch the covering of the drain, and that its lower may reach six or nine inches down into the well below the bottom of the drain. Mortar or cement must prevent the passage of air between the upper edge of this trap-stone and the cover of the well and drain, and the trap is complete.

The water coming from the sink flows along the drain from *a* to *b* (fig. 13), where it falls into the well, and filling it up to that level, it flows on again from *c* in the direction of *d*, to the cess-pool or common sewer, from which, however, no smell can return; for the trap-stone *e*, the lower half of which is thus immersed in water, completely bars the passage. It is evident, however, that if the well should leak, the water in it may fall below the lower edge of the stone, and the efficiency of the trap be destroyed; but if it be made perfect in the first instance, there can be no danger of any inconvenience that a bucket of water thrown in at the sink will not cure. It is from the drying up of the water in these well-traps (vulgarly called *sink-traps*) that uninhabited houses are so frequently offensive. It must be clear, moreover, that these traps form an effectual bar to vermin, and they may therefore be advantageously placed at the entrance of water-closet drains, to prevent rats from getting at the soil-pipes, which they will gnaw and destroy if they can get access to them. Internal drains, or those which go through a house, should always pass under the doorways if possible, and above the inverted arch, which should be always found under them, in external walls at least. If, however, circumstances should render it absolutely necessary to take a drain through a wall, an arched ring or bull's eye should be made for it to pass by.

Cess-pools should be made cylindrical, and be bricked round; but whether they are made to retain fluids or not, can seldom be a matter of consequence, as they are generally put in secluded places, where, if the object be not to get rid of the waste, there is seldom, at least, any desire to retain it. In towns and cities where the common sewerage is as complete as it should be, and water-closets are used instead of privies, cess-pools are unnecessary, as the soil becomes so much diluted by the water that goes down with it, that it flows readily enough through the private drains to the common sewer, and so on with the rest, to the common receptacle. Sometimes, indeed, it may be found necessary to clean out the well-traps, but this cannot often occur.


The construction of ovens and furnaces, and well-steening, are certainly within the range of the bricklayer's art,

Building. but as they are not immediately connected with our present subject, they do not come within the scope of this article.

Brick and tile paving is performed by the bricklayer. Brick paving is either flat, or on edge, in sand, or in mortar or cement. Brick flat paving in sand, that is, with the bricks laid on their broadest surfaces, and bedded in and on dry sand, is very slight and fragile, and brick flat paving set and bedded in mortar is very little better; for if the soil on which the paving is laid be light and sandy, the bricks are easily displaced by being pressed unequally; and if it be clayey it will probably be moist, and the thin porous brick absorbing the moisture, will generally become saturated, and present a damp, unwholesome floor. Paving with bricks on their edges, however, forms a much better floor, and is preferable to a stone paving, if the latter be laid on the ground without the intervention of footings. Brick-on-edge paving in sand is generally used in beer cellars, pantries, dairies, stables, &c. as its numerous open joints allow wasted or discharged fluids readily to escape; and it is both cool and dry under ordinary circumstances. In mortar or cement, bricks on their edges form a sound, dry floor; the smallness of the surface exposed by each brick in this manner leaves them of course less susceptible of partial pressures, and the depth from the soil to the surface is such that damp rarely shows through. The paving brick differs from the common brick only in thickness, its dimension in that direction being rather less than two inches instead of two inches and a half, and in being rather harder and more compact. Dutch clinkers are paving bricks, smaller and much harder than the English; they are six inches long, three inches wide, and one inch and a half thick, and are always set on edge and herring-boned; that is, instead of being placed in parallel lines, they are set at right angles to each other thus,—with nevertheless a perfectly even face. Paving tiles are made nine inches and a half and eleven inches and a half square, though they are called ten inch and twelve inch or foot tiles respectively, the former being one inch, and the latter one inch and a half thick; they are set in courses, as stone paving would be. Paving tiles make a neater, but not so sound and durable a pavement, as brick on edge.

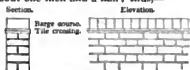
Tiling being much less in vogue than formerly, in consequence of the better appreciation of the superior qualities of slate for covering roofs, and the moderate cost at which slates are now furnished to the builder, it no longer maintains its separate artificer, but is performed, when it is required, by the bricklayer. It consists for the most part, of two sorts—plain tiling and pan tiling. Plain tiles are simple parallelograms, generally about ten inches and a half in length, six inches wide, and five eighths of an inch thick; and each tile has a hole pierced through it near one end, to receive the wooden pin by which it is hooked on to the lath. The tiles are laid in mortar on the laths, which in this country are of oak or fir, with an overlap of six, seven, or eight inches. The greatest overlap or smallest gauge makes the securest work, though it does not present so good an appearance externally as a longer gauge does; and it requires, moreover, a greater number of tiles and laths, thereby adding materially both to the weight and the cost. The great overlap and the mortar are both necessary, nevertheless, to prevent the rain and snow from driving in between and under the tiles. Plain tiling requires the pitch of the roof to be at an angle of at least 50°, and is one of the heaviest coverings that can be used, though it is at the same time one of the warmest. The tiles, however, readily and rapidly absorb moisture, which they communicate to the laths and rafters under them, to

the serious injury of both the latter; and the mortar in **Building,** which they are set requires to be frequently pointed, the constant atmospheric changes to which it is exposed occasioning it to crumble and fall away in a very short time.

Pan tiles are parallelograms of irregular surface, straight in the direction of their length, which is thirteen inches and a half, but twisted to this form  in the transverse section. Measuring the whole surface across, a tile is nine inches wide, but in a right line from point to point not more than seven, and its thickness is half an inch; a small tongue or lip is bent down at one end, from its flat convexity, on the under side, to hook it on to the lath by, instead of a wooden pin through it, as in a plain tile. Pan tiles are set dry or in mortar, on laths. They are not laid side by side, but overlapping laterally, thus; conse-

quently all the overlap they have longitudinally is three or four inches only, or enough to prevent rain and snow from driving up under the upper, over the end of the lower tile; and thence pan tiling is but little more than half the weight of plain tiling. It is nevertheless a much less warm covering for houses, and is more liable to be injured by violent gales or gusts of wind, than the latter is; but again, it presents a far more pleasing appearance to the eye. Pan tiling will not bear a much flatter pitch than the other, but it is greatly improved by being pointed on the inside with lime and hair; sometimes indeed the whole of the work is, as we have said, set in mortar; but this mode has disadvantages to which pointing internally is not liable, and its superiority in other respects is questionable. To both pan and plain tiling there is a large concave tile used to cover the hips and ridges of a roof. These are not generally made to overlap each other in any situation, but are set in mortar, and fastened with nails and hooks fitted for the purpose.

When the top of a brick wall is not protected by a roof, it must be covered or coped in some manner, or it will soon be destroyed by the weather. Sometimes this is done by means of a course of bricks set across it on their edges in cement, and called a barge course, but it is a very imperfect covering, for water will trickle down the face of the wall on both sides, as the coping brick can be no longer than the thinnest wall is in thickness. Two double courses of plain tiles may be put side by side under the barge course, making a projection over either face of about one inch and a half; thus,—



This is much better than the barge course alone; but still the covering possesses no inclination outwards to throw the water off; the upper surfaces are all horizontal. The same objection exists to foot-paving tiles, which are also used as a coping; but none of these methods is available for any wall above nine inches in thickness. Stone coping, therefore, which may be made of sufficient width, and be both weathered and throated, is much to be preferred.

One of the greatest faults in the modern practice of building, both architecturally as a matter of taste, and practically as a matter of prudence, is, that these copings, and cornices which serve as such, do not project sufficiently to protect the face of the wall on which they may be placed, from the weather. A bold, massive, and well-projected cornice on a wall serves as a roof or pent-house to it, and, besides imparting great beauty to the plainest structure, protects the wall from the premature decay of

Building. its upper part especially, and of the joints generally, if it be unplastered brick-work, which thereby calls for the constant repetition of pointing. Effective and pleasing cornices and blocking courses may be formed with uncut bricks alone; and these, set in cement, would, with judicious management, add materially both to the appearance and durability of brick-work, without the foreign aid of the plasterer or mason.

From the injury which accrues to the joints of brick-work through bad management in its execution, and imperfect protection when executed, arises the necessity so frequent at the present day of pointing.

Sometimes frost will have supervened before the surfaces of the joints in a wall are dry; consequently the mortar bursts and peels away, and the whole then requires to be pointed. Preparatory to this operation the scaffold, if it has been struck, must be re-erected, the mortar raked out of the joints to a depth of about three eighths of an inch, or deeper if the injury have reached further;—this can be done by a labourer;—a brick-layer then goes over the whole with a hard hair-brush and water to cleanse and moisten the joints; and then, with mortar prepared for the purpose, he carefully fills them all up, and neatly draws them with his trowel. This mortar must be of the best quality; it is generally compounded with a certain proportion of forge ashes, which gives it a blue tinge, and greatly aids its power of resisting the action of the weather. Cement is sometimes used instead of this blue mortar. If the wall to be pointed be a front or other important one, in which peculiar neatness is required, every joint is marked with a narrow parallel ridge of a fine white putty, in the composition of which bone lime forms a principal ingredient. The former is called flat-joint, and the latter tuck-pointing. If it be an old wall that requires pointing, a scaffold must be erected before it; and where the putlocks cannot be rested on window sills and the like, half bricks are generally drawn from the wall to make rests for them, and restored again when the work is done. The former process is then gone through with a common wall; but if it require tuck-pointing, the whole surface is well washed, and then coloured, to look like new, before the pointing is done. The gauged arches over the windows and doors are always coloured, and the joints drawn with peculiar neatness. If in the original building of the wall the perpenda have not been preserved, that is, if the vertical joints have not been made to fall perpendicularly in the alternately recurring courses, the workman in pointing stops up the old joints, which are irregular, with putty of a brick colour, and forms false new ones in the proper places.

The tools and implements mostly employed by the bricklayer are the trowel, the plumb-rule, the level, the square, the bevel, line-pins and lines, the raker, and the hammer, together with a hod and spade for his labourer. Besides these there are sundry others used in cutting and gauging bricks, and some which are peculiar to tiling and paving; but the most material operations can be performed with those enumerated here. A pug-mill and screens for mixing and tempering mortar are also auxiliaries of great importance.

Brick-work is valued by the rod. A rod of brick-work is a quantity whose superficies is 272½ feet (taken in practice at the round number 272 without the fraction), and thickness one brick and a half. Reckoning the one brick and a half at thirteen inches and a half,—its average extent,—the cubic foot is to the reduced superficial foot as eight to nine, so that a cubic rod of brick-work consists of 306 feet, the result of 272 multiplied by nine and divided by eight. The reduced superficial rod, however, is that commonly used in practice; and the process of measuring, to

ascertain the quantities and bring them to a standard, is **Building** as follows:—

The exact superficies of so much of a wall as may be of the same thickness is taken, and the number of bricks it is in thickness placed marginally; all the different portions or parts being of the same thickness are taken in like manner, and then deductions, as of window openings and doorways, are taken as such, in superficies, with their respective thicknesses placed marginally also. The dimensions, on being squared, are abstracted in half bricks, the deduction made of like thicknesses from like thicknesses, and the whole reduced by multiplying each quantity by the number of half bricks in the thickness of the parts of the wall which the margin expresses, and dividing the product by three (the number of half bricks in one brick and a half, the standard), the reduced quantity which results, divided again by 272, the number of feet in a rod, gives the quantity of rods and feet in the wall; as, for example,—The front wall of a house is thirty-five feet in length on the ground floor. (Fig. 14.) It has a basement story twelve feet high from the top of the footings to the level of the ground floor, and two and a half bricks thick, which is a half brick more than the wall above. The footings are three spreading courses high, each course a half brick thicker than the one above it. In the basement wall there are a door and two windows, the former seven feet by three feet six inches between the reveals, and the latter five feet by three feet nine inches between the reveals also. The measurement of thus much will show how all the rest must be done.

The footings consisting of three equally spreading courses, the extent of the middle one both in length and breadth will be an average of them all, so that they may be taken in one height. To the length of the ground floor, thirty-five feet, must be added twice three sets-off of one fourth of a brick at each end of the basement, and of the two first courses of footings for the length of the second of them; this is equal to three half bricks, or thirteen and a half inches, which, added to thirty-five feet, makes thirty-six feet one and a half inch the dimension of length for the footings, by nine inches, their height;

24	56	18	27	1	Footings.
		9			
24	53	49	424	6	Basement wall from the top of footings to the level of ground floor.
	12	0			
1	7	0	84	6	Deduct for door between the reveals.
	3	0			
18	7	53	51	4	Do. behind the reveals.
	4	5			
9					
1	5	0	27	8	Do. for the window between the reveals.
	3	9			
7					
18	5	46	44	43	Do. behind the reveals.
	4	6			

Abstract of the above Quantities.

½ brick.	Deductions to ½ brick.
180	7
5125	6
5211	1
202	1
5198	0
272369	8
514	
202	

272369 R/V rods 105 feet 8 inches.

The deduction of one half brick being made to the height, and of two half bricks to the width, because of the reveals. The windows are taken in exactly the same manner, with the same additions; but as the two are of the same size, their number

Building. is marked against the one dimension. The dimensions are now to be squared, and the squaring is done by duodecimals, or cross-multiplication. 36 feet $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches \times 9 inches = 27 feet 1 inch; 35 feet $4\frac{1}{2}$ inches \times 12 feet = 424 feet 6 inches, and so on with the rest. An abstract is then made of these quantities in two columns, the first is marked "one half brick," and the second "deductions in that thickness." In the first column is placed the first quantity, multiplied by seven, the number of half bricks in three and a half, which stands marginally to it; 25 feet 6 inches \times 7 = 189 feet 7 inches. The second dimension follows in the same column, multiplied by five, the number of half bricks in its thickness; the next quantity is a deduction, that is placed in the second column, multiplied by two, the thickness of the part deducted being one brick, and the rest in the same manner. The abstract being completed, the columns are added, and the amount of the second deducted from that of the first, and the difference divided by three, which brings it to the reduced standard. Dividing now by 272, the number of rods and feet in the given wall appears to be 2 rods, 185 feet, 8 inches. The quantities are more generally abstracted in one-brick and one and a half brick columns, with deductions in other parallel columns, to which thicknesses they are all readily brought. The single column in one half brick is, however, assumed here as the more simple and the more easily explained.

It must be remembered, that in taking the return or end walls, the thickness of that which has been already taken in front is to be deducted from their length, or the angle pier or quoin will be taken twice. Work which is circular on the plan may be taken separately, and charged at a higher price altogether, or it may be measured as plain, and an extra taken at so much the superficial foot. Chimney breasts are taken as additional quantities, with the thicknesses they project, and the opening for the fireplace is deducted; but the flues are measured as solid, the extra labour and mortar in forming and pargetting them being fully equal in value to the bricks saved.

A rod of brick-work will consume about 4500 bricks, though the number will be a few more or less than this, as the bricks happen to be below or above the average size, and as the joints are made thicker or thinner. The quantity of mortar, it is evident, will be affected by the latter consideration also; but in London it is generally reckoned at from ninety to a hundred struck bushels, or from four to four and a half cart loads, each containing about one cubic yard, to the rod. The labour on a rod of brick-work may be taken on an average at the wages of a bricklayer, and his assistant or labourer, for four days; this, however, does not include making and beating the mortar, nor scaffolding, which latter must be separately considered. Many things will, however, affect the time in which the work may be performed, both of the bricklayer and his labourer; the former can do one fourth as much more, at the least, in walls which are to be plastered, as in those in which he has to keep the perpend and draw the joints, &c., and more in thick walls than in thin ones; and the capability of the latter will depend, inversely, on the rate at which the former can proceed, on the distance he may have to carry the bricks and mortar to the foot of the ladder, and mainly on the height he has to carry the materials up the ladder. In great heights, however, the materials should always be hoisted.

Gauged arches are taken at so much per foot superficial, in addition to being measured in as brick-work. Both the vertical and horizontal surfaces are measured to obtain the superficies of the arch, or rather of the work upon it. Rough arches are also taken as an extra superficial quantity; but plain arches in vaults, &c. and discharging

arches, are not considered extras, though an allowance is made for cutting to moulds, for inverted discharging arches, at per foot run.

If a wall be faced with bricks of a more costly sort than that of which the bulk is composed, or worked in a peculiar manner, it is calculated by the foot superficial, also in addition to its measurement as brick-work. It should be a matter of previous agreement whether or not there shall be an extra charge for plumbing quoins and reveals. Under ordinary circumstances no allowance is made for it; but oblique vertical angles, both internal and external, which require to have bricks neatly cut to form them, are taken at so much per foot running measure. External oblique angles are technically termed *scant-quoins*, and internal, *birds-mouth*. Oblique angles within a building are taken as run of cut splay. Cuttings to rakes or inclined straight lines are taken by the running foot also, but with reference to the thickness of the wall. Cuttings to ramps or concave lines are measured and valued in the same manner. Sailing or projecting courses, preparations for plaster cornices, and brick cornices themselves, are all taken at so much per foot run, according to the labour and materials involved in working them, over and above the regular charge for the brick-work by the rod.

Every thing, indeed, which adds to the labour of executing brick-work, and consumes more than the ordinary quantity of materials, is taken in addition, either by the foot superficial, or by the foot running, or in numbers, as the setting of chimney-pots, bedding and pointing door and sash-frames, &c. Bond-timbers, lintels, and wall-plates, are generally measured in with the brick-work, on account of the trouble of bedding them, and the delay generally occasioned to the bricklayer in setting them. If they are not included with the brick-work, bedding them is an extra charge, at so much per foot run; and then filling in between the ends of the joists and beams generally requires to be taken also.

Brick-nogging is measured by the superficial yard, including the quarterings and interties, and making no deductions but for openings. Drains and sewers are measured by the foot run, according to their form and capacity. The quantity of materials consumed, and labour required in constructing them, may be readily obtained by calculating the one, and observing the quantity a man with a labourer can execute under the circumstances, whatever they may be, within a given time.

Paving is measured by the superficial yard of nine feet; tiling by the square of one hundred feet;—eaves courses, ridges, and hips, being extra charges, by the foot run. Pointing, whether to old or new work, is measured by the superficial foot; and the scaffolding for it, when scaffolding is required, is either included in the price per foot for pointing, or a charge is made for the use of it, together with the cost of carting, and the men's time in setting up and removing it.

Mason.—We must refer to the separate article under the heads **STONE-MASONRY** and **STONE-CUTTING** for information on those subjects generally. It will, however, be necessary to give a few particulars here on masons' work, as it has to do with other artificers' works in the process of building, and especially with reference to various species of walling, or modes of constructing walls of stone.

From the regular and determined form of bricks, modes or systems for setting or arranging them may be formed, and any workman, by habit and an exertion of memory merely, may become competent to build a brick wall as well as it can be built; but it is not so with stone used in common masonry walling. The workman in this material has for the most part to do with masses of all forms and of all sizes, and a continual exercise of the judgment is

Building. required from him beyond the tact or skill which may be acquired by practice. For this reason workmen are generally less to be trusted to themselves, or to their own discretion, in stone than even in brick-laying or walling. The best or highest sort of stone walling is the easiest to set; it is that in which the stones are all tooled and gauged in regular paralogramic figures, to range in courses and suit the thickness of the wall to which they are to belong; and the most difficult to execute properly is that in which amorphous stones are used,—the mason being allowed merely to dress them roughly with his hammer or axe, and fit them in as he best can to form the most compact mass: this is called rubble walling.

From the brittle nature of stone, great tact is required in setting, to prop or bear up the longer pieces in every part, or they will break across, and thus occasion more injury than could accrue if their whole mass had been made up of small pieces. Very long lengths, therefore, should be avoided, even in regular tooled courses, with which the bearing is or should be perfectly even, and a settling down of the work itself is hardly to be feared. There is a certain medium which may be preserved; and although the object is obviously, in stone as in brick walls, to form a compact mass, as unbroken into parts as possible, a mason will act more judiciously in breaking a long stone into two or more shorter ones, and working them in in that state, though he thus makes two or more additional joints, well knowing that he has the power of counteracting to a certain extent the ill effect of joints made by himself, but that those made by accident are irremediably injurious.

The observations made in the section of this article on bricklaying, on the use of mortar, will apply here also. Of whatever quality the stone may be of which a wall is to be built, it should consist as much of stone and as little of mortar as possible. If it be inferior in durability and power of resisting the action of the atmosphere, &c. to the mortar, besides the certain fact that the mortar will yield until it has set hard, and so far act injuriously, no ulterior good is gained; and if the stone be the more durable material, the more of it that enters into the wall the better. Indeed, in rough walling, if the stones be pressed together until the more prominent angles on their faces come into actual contact, the interstices being occupied by mortar, it will be better than if a thick yielding mass were allowed to remain between them. Absolute contact, however, should not be permitted, any more than in brick-work, lest the shrinking of the mortar in drying leave the stones to such unequal bearing as the prominent parts alone would afford. Stone being generally of a less absorbent nature than brick, it is not a matter of so much importance that it be wetted before setting; nevertheless, adhesion on the part of the mortar is more certain and more complete if the stones be worked in in at least a damp state. What bond is, and the necessity for it, have also been shown in the preceding section; and bond is of not less importance in stone walling than in bricklaying. We have also hinted above at the greater difficulty of understanding, forming, and preserving it in the former, and can now only add a few observations in addition that can be of any use, and these with reference to rubble walling particularly. Instead of carefully making the joints recur one over the other in alternate courses, as with bricks and gauged stones, the joints should as carefully be made to lock, so as to give the strength of two or three courses or layers between a joint in one course, and one that may occur vertically over it in another. In bonding through a wall, or transversely, it is much better that many stones should reach two thirds across, alternately from the opposite sides, than that there should be a few thorough stones, or stones extending the whole thickness of the wall. Indeed, one of

Building. the many faults of stone-masons is that of making a wall consist of two scales or thin sides, with thorough stones now and then laid across to bind them together, the core being made up of mortar and small rubble merely. This is a mode of structure that should be carefully guarded against. There is no better test of a workman's tact and judgment in rubble walling than the building of a dry wall, or a wall without mortar, affords;—walls are frequently built with mortar that without it would have fallen down under their own weight in a height of six feet, in consequence of their defective construction,—thus rendering it evident that they are only held together by the tenacity of the mortar, which is very seldom an equivalent for a proper bond of stone. Masons are very apt to set thin broad stones on their narrow edges to show a good face, by which the wall is injured in two ways; it tends to the formation of a mere case on the surface of a wall, and it for the most part exposes the bed of the stone to the atmosphere, as a stone is more likely to be broad in the direction of its bed than across it.

Rubble walling is either coursed or uncoursed. In the latter sort, fig. 15, the work is carried on with stones of any sizes, as they may occur, and without reference to their heights, somewhat in the manner of the Cyclopean walling of antiquity; the interstices of the larger being filled up with smaller stones. For this work the mason uses no tool but the trowel to lay on the mortar, the scaling hammer to break off the most repulsive irregularities from the stones, and the plumb-rule to keep his work perpendicular. The line and level are equally unnecessary, as the work is independent of considerations which are affected by them. An attentive and intelligent workman will, however, make a sound wall with this species of construction, by fitting the stones well together and packing them with as little mortar as possible, yet filling every crevice with it, and carefully bonding through to secure compactness, transversely at the least.

In coursed rubble walling, fig. 16, the line and level are used, the work is laid in courses, each course being carefully brought up to the same level in itself, though no attention is paid to uniformity in the heights of the different courses. For this species of walling the stones are generally roughly dressed by the workman in the gross before he begins building. He is careful to get parallel beds to them, and he brings the best face of each stone to a tolerably even surface at right angles to the beds; the ends, too, receive some little attention, and for this purpose he uses an axe in addition to his scaling hammer. The quoins in coursed rubble walling are generally built with peculiar neatness and precision, and they are set to serve as gauge courses for the rest. This, when well executed, makes a sound and excellent wall. It presents, however, rather a rough and homely appearance, and in finer works must be covered with stucco or cement, or faced with ashlar.

Ashlar is an external rind of gauged stones in equal courses, having tooled or closely-fitting joints to give a wall a neat and uniform appearance; it is axed, tooled, or rubbed, as may be thought most in character with the structure, or that part of it to which it is to belong. Ashlar stones, or ashlar as they are commonly called, are made of various sizes on the surface, as the character of the edifice may require or convenience demand, and vary in thickness from five to eight or nine inches. Some of the ashlar stones must, it is clear, be used transversely as bond stones, or the facing, having nothing to connect it with the wall behind, would soon totter and fall. Bond stones are generally put in alternate courses, with the backing to the jambs of openings, such as windows, and often, if these do not recur within a length of five or six

Building. feet; the bond stones themselves, too, should not fall in the same vertical chain, except when they are in the jambs of openings, but break in their alternate courses. Ashlar is commonly set in a fine mortar or in putty. It is generally recommended that ashlar should not be made regular parallelopipeds, but run back irregularly to tooth in with the backing, the vertical joints being left open from about an inch within the face of the wall, and the upper surface or bed of the stones made narrower than, though perfectly parallel to, the lower. These things may exert a slightly beneficial influence under some circumstances; but the mode of construction involved is so radically bad, that unless the backing is set in a quick-setting cement, or be so well packed as to be proof against its general tendency to settle away from the ashlar facing, no means of the kind can materially improve it. A well-compacted wall of coarse rubble, the courses being frequently made up of whole stones and faced with ashlar, may be made tolerably sound and trust-worthy. Brick backing, with ashlar facing, cannot be considered as good, though it has the advantage of not requiring battening and lathing for inside plastering, as the stone-backed wall does. Uncoursed rubble with ashlar has all the disadvantages of both the preceding, with nothing to recommend it above either of them.

There are, besides, many sorts of walling or modes of structure arising from the nature of the materials furnished in various localities. That of most frequent occurrence, perhaps, is a manner in which either broken or rounded flints are used. These depend almost entirely on the mortar with which they are compacted, and on a coursed chain, which is commonly introduced at short intervals of larger stones or bricks, to act as a bond; the quoins, too, in this species of structure are generally constructed of dressed stones or brick.

Whatever objections lie against bond timber in brick-work apply with equal force at least to the use of it in stone walls; and it is of less importance generally as a tie in the latter than in the former, because a chain may be made by means of metal cramps and dovetails of wood or cast iron. A chain of this kind does not distribute pressure, however, as well as a chain of timber bond does, because of the liability of the material to fracture when it is borne upon unequally, and therefore may not be considered an equivalent for wall-plates or templates.

Discharging arches, it must be evident, are as necessary in and to stone walls as to walls of brick, and they may be treated much in the same manner.

Rubble walls are scaffolded with single, and ashlar fronted or other gauged stone walls with double fronted scaffolding, the former tailing one end of the putlocks in on the wall, and the other having an inner row of standard poles and ledgers parallel to the outer, making the scaffold entirely independent of the wall. In some places, however, it is the custom to dispense altogether with an external scaffold in building stone walls, particularly with gauged stones. With light and plain work this may be done without much inconvenience or retardation; but if the work be heavy or delicate, considerable delay and in correctness result. Sometimes the finer work, such as that to mouldings, flutes, and foliate or other enrichments, is merely boasted or roughed out before the stones are set, and finished afterwards. This can be done well only from a secure floor or scaffold, on which the workman may move freely.

When walls are not entirely of masonry, in the ordinary course of economic building, stone is frequently used for copings, cornices, string and blocking courses, sills, landings, pavings, curbs, steps, stairs, hearth-stones and slabs, and chimney-pieces; to these may be added, quoins and

architectural decorations, or dressings for windows, doors, &c., though both the former and latter are not unfrequently executed in plaster composition, or cements. Copings (see Glossary to the article ARCHITECTURE) to cover walls, parapets, &c., are worked with a plain horizontal bed, two vertical faces, and an inclined or weathered back or upper surface; either forming an acute angle with the outer and wider, and an obtuse angle with the inner and narrower face, to throw the water off, as shown at *a*, fig. 19; or to both sides from the middle, as at *b*; the latter is technically termed saddle-back coping. In both cases they are made to project over the wall or parapet on both sides; and in the projected part of the bed under the edge or edges towards which the inclination is given, a channel or groove, called a throat, is cut, to intercept the water in its inclination to run inwards to the wall. On gables or other inclined planes the coping is neither weathered nor throated, as the water is necessarily impelled along its course to the lower end, and not over the sides. To protect the separate stones of a coping course from the danger of being displaced by high winds or other accidental cause, and to form a chain through its whole length, the stones are linked together by cramps of copper or iron let into their backs and run with lead. These metals, however, especially the iron, for the most part act very injuriously, from their exceeding susceptibility of atmospheric changes, and their greater or less tendency to oxidation; indeed, the stone invariably suffers more than the work benefits from the metal cramps. Tenons, dowels, joggles or dovetails of stone, or of hard wood or cast iron, applied so as to be protected from the weather, would be far better, and would answer every desirable purpose sufficiently. Cornices (*vide ut sup.*) are but ramified copings, and are or may be subjected to the same general laws. Care must be taken, however, in arranging them, that their centre of gravity be not brought too far forward, in the anxiety to project them sufficiently, lest they act injuriously on the wall by pressing unequally, and their own safety be also endangered. String courses (*vide ut sup.*) economically, in contradistinction to architecturally, are meant to protect a set-off in a wall, by projecting over its lower face in the manner of a coping (see fig. 17, at *c*); the beds are worked parallel, and the outer face vertical or at right angles to them, but so much of the upper surface is weathered or sloped off as protrudes from the upper part of the wall to carry the water off; and, for the reason above stated with regard to copings, the lower bed just within the outer face is throated. A stone string course, cramped or dove-tailed as above, forms an excellent chain round a brick wall; but the part of it in the wall should be of the exact thickness of one, two, or more courses of brick. A blocking course (*vide ut sup.*) is either a very thick string projecting over or flush with the face of the lower part of the wall, or it is a range of stone over a crowning cornice to bring the centre of gravity more in on the wall than it otherwise would be; in the former case it is treated exactly as a string, excepting that, if it be flush below, there is no occasion for a throat; and in the latter it has a horizontal bed, parallel vertical sides, and a weathered back or upper surface. Sills (*vide ut sup.*) are weathered and throated like the parts of a string course (see fig. 17, at *a* and *b*); they are laid across the feet or bases of window openings, &c. to receive the ash-frame, and carry the water off from the wall below; distinct sills in the same line may, indeed, be considered as an intercepted string course. In the ordinary practice of building, window sills are seldom set in brick-walls until they are absolutely required to set the ash-frames on; or they are set but not bedded, except at the ends. The object of this is to prevent any settlement that may occur in the piers

Building. from breaking the sills across on the unyielding part of the wall under the windows. A necessity for this, however, can only arise from bad construction; for with inverted arches under the openings, and a good bond in the brick-work, all would settle together, and the sills might be completely bedded across at once. Landings are platforms of stone, either over an area before a door, at the head of a flight of stairs, or as the floor of a balcony. They are made four, five, six, or eight inches in thickness, according to their extent and bearing; if not of one piece of stone, they are of nicely jointed pieces joggled and plugged together, and are worked on the face and edges just as their situation may demand. Stone pavings are of various kinds, and are prepared, shaped, and laid in various ways. Stone paving that is not exposed to the sun and air, if next the ground, should be laid on footings of brick or stone, or it will be constantly damp if the soil be close and clayey; but in yards, open areas, &c. it may be laid on the ground, bedded in sand, and jointed with mortar or cement. Stone paved floors are either on brick arches, or on a timber floor prepared for the purpose: the latter is a very bad mode of supporting paving, as the impression derived from the presence of the latter is, that the floor is incombustible; but if it be bedded on combustible material, the danger to human life in the event of fire is greater than if the stone paving did not exist at all. It is worked, cut, and set more or less expensively, according to circumstances. A curb is a range or course of thicker and stronger stone to bound a pavement, and is either flush with the paving, showing as a step on its outer edge, or raised above it to receive a balustrade, and shows on the outer side as a blocking course; in the latter situation it is generally joggled and plugged in the joints. The term step or steps alone is generally understood to mean external steps, whether arranged in long or short flights, or the single step in a doorway into which the door frame is tenoned. A step should have a plain horizontal bed, and a very slightly weathered tread or upper surface; the front or riser worked plain and vertical, or with a moulded nosing, and the back sunk with a joggle or bird's-mouth joint to receive the step or landing above or behind it. Stairs are but a flight or combination of steps used internally; the principles upon which they are constructed will be found under the heads STONE-MASONRY and JOINERY. Hearths are the stone flooring of fire-places; and a slab is that part of the floor of a room which lies immediately before the fire-place and along the extent of its front. This slab is supported by a flat brick arch called a brick trimmer, which is turned from the chimney-breast under the hearth on one side, to the trimmer joint on the other. (See a section of all these at fig. 18.) Chimney-pieces consist simply of mantle and jambs; that is, the vertical sides, and the architrave or transverse covering with its shelf or cornice. The parts of a chimney-piece are generally put together with an adhesive plaster or cement, and affixed to the wall or chimney-breast behind with cramps, hold-fasts, and plugs. The material of which chimney-pieces are composed varies from the coarsest stone to the finest marble; and the labour on them varies to a still greater extent. Quoin-stones are gauged and wrought blocks with parallel beds and vertical faces, placed on the angles of buildings with the intention of adding to their beauty and strength; they are used either with brick or stone walls, and are generally made to project before the face of that to which they are attached, mostly with a weathered angular joint, or with a rectangularly grooved or moulded one. The quoins are coursed with the rest of the wall if it be of stone, and are made to occupy the exact space of a limited number of courses of brick in a brick wall. (See fig. 17.)

Masonry to receive architectural decorations is generally worked into the walls as they are carried up; but as they are seldom homogeneous either in matter or construction, the result is mostly the converse of what it purports to be, for the work is more frequently weakened than strengthened by the decorative masonry. Stones of which columns are to be composed, whether each column is to be of one stone or more, are generally roughly boasted out before they are set, and are finished afterwards to traversing moulds and templates with a plumb-rule, whose sides are cut to the diminution, whatever it may be. Flutes are cut at the same time and in the same manner. The beds of the joints in columns should be worked with the greatest precision, that they may fit firmly and closely together; they must not, however, be worked hollow to make a close joint externally, or the arrises will chip off. It is considered a good plan to put a piece of thin milled lead between the beds, cut circular, and extending to within a short distance of the surface, and that the rest be filled with a fine adhesive putty, made as nearly of the colour of the stone as possible. This makes a solid bed, and protects the arrises effectually; but it will not do so well for slight columns, because it narrows the bed so materially. A joggle or dowel of hard wood or cast iron let into the core might be a sufficient counteraction, and it would certainly add to the stability of a polytithic shaft. The other parts of a columnar composition may be sufficiently cramped and joggled together with wood and metals, according to the situation, though it may be again remarked, that neither the one nor the other should be used, except where they can be protected from the access, even, of the atmosphere.

Stone walling is generally measured by the perch of twenty-one feet superficial, at a standard of eighteen inches in thickness, or a cubic quantity of thirty-one feet six inches. Sometimes it is taken by the rod of 272 feet, like brick-work, but at the eighteen inch standard instead of the fourteen inch, or a brick and a half, as in the latter species of walling. The perch, however, as first stated, is the standard of this country. The quantities may be ascertained in the same manner that they are in measuring brick-work, the number of inches the wall is in thickness being substituted in the margin for the number of brick lengths. In abstracting, the superficial quantities may be taken out in columns under the different thicknesses; the amount of each column being multiplied by the thickness in inches, and divided by eighteen, gives the reduced quantity; but if the work be taken in cubic quantities, it is evident that the three dimensions of every part multiplied together brings the whole at once to cubic feet, and no further process is necessary, unless it be required to bring the total quantity into reduced perches, which may be done by dividing it by thirty-one and a half.

The custom being different in different places with regard to the double measurement of quoins or angle piers, and as to whether openings, such as windows and doors, shall or shall not be deducted, because of the greater care and trouble required in setting and plumbing quoins and reveals, these particulars should be made matter of previous agreement. Perhaps the best way is to take the quantities exactly, and allow a running measurement extra on the parts requiring more than the usual quantity of labour, or, the nature of the work being of course obvious beforehand, the price per perch, per rod, or per foot cube, on the exact quantity, may be made to include the proposed extras. In the same manner, chisel-dressing (that is, facing the stones neatly and truly with the chisel), whether plain or sunk, may or may not be charged extra, according to agreement, or, in the absence of a previous agreement, to the custom of the place. To

Building. ascertain the value of stone walling, the cost of every thing that enters into some fixed quantity on the spot must be calculated, for almost every thing connected with it varies in almost every place. The original price of the stone at the quarry; the expense of carrying it from thence to the place where it is to be worked up; its texture or comparative hardness, which will materially affect the quantity of walling a mason may execute in a certain time; the cost on the spot, of lime and sand, and the height to which stones must be carried or hoisted from the ground; must all be ascertained and considered, as well as the wages of masons and labourers, and the sort of walling proposed to be executed.

Stone used in string and blocking courses, sills, copings, cornices, steps, quoins, columns, entablatures, &c. is measured by the foot cube, and the work on it is taken as plain, sunk, or moulded, by the foot superficial. The dimensions for the cubic quantities are taken on the unreduced block, or rather on the greatest breadth and thickness which the finished work exhibits; for instance, the string course, which appears in section at *c*, fig. 17, would be taken as of the thickness throughout which it holds in the wall; and in the same manner, the thickness of the sill at *b* would be taken under the wooden sill of the sash frame, which must have been the original thickness of the whole scantling. Stone sawed into thin slabs for paving, chimney pieces, &c. is taken by the superficial foot, at a certain thickness, the value being ascertained from the cubic quantity and the cost of sawing on the surface, whilst some articles, being of a fixed breadth and thickness fitting them to peculiar purposes, are taken by the running foot; but both these latter modes suppose labour included.

Plain work is the even surface produced on stone by the chisel, without the necessity of taking away more than the mere inequalities, and is equivalent to what the joiner calls trying-up, that is, making the surfaces perfectly straight both longitudinally and transversely, and so that it shall be quite out of winding, which indeed is a term to express the result of trying-up. Sunk work arises from the necessity of chiselling or hacking away below the level surface of the plain work, such as the weathering of copings, string courses, cornices, &c.; and mouldings cut in stone produce what is called moulded work. Sunk and moulded work are either straight or circular; circular plain work is certainly spoken of, but incorrectly, for every flexure in stone must be produced by sinking. The joints and beds, that is, the upper and lower horizontal sides, and the vertical ends of stones, are taken as plain work, as well as their faces and edges, if they have been wrought with the chisel to produce the surface; or their superficies are taken as sawing or half plain work, if the surfaces are as the saw left them. An extra charge is made on plain work for rubbing to produce a smooth unchannelled surface; and again, a higher charge is made for plain work if it be equally channelled or furrowed in vertical lines over the surface; this latter operation is technically termed tooling. Whenever any two surfaces meet in an oblique angle, one of them may be taken as sunk work, and it will generally be that which is not parallel to its opposite side. It is valued at about two sevenths more than plain work; and circular sunk work, that is, circular in the direction of its length, at about one sixth more than straight sunk. Moulded work is measured by girding the moulding or mouldings with a cord or tape, carrying it into all the quirks, and round all the arrises; the dimension thus given is multiplied by the length for the superficial quantity. This is valued at about one fifth more than sunk work, and circular moulded at about one half more than straight. Narrow jointings, groovings, throatings, joggings, &c. are taken by the

foot run. Mortises, holes, notches, cramps, dovetails, &c. **Building.** are numbered and charged at so much a piece, according to the labour and cost involved in making them. The common pavings, landings, copings, sills, and steps generally used in London for ordinary purposes, are of a laminated stone from Yorkshire, and they are for the most part worked to size and shape in the quarry, so that there can be very little labour on them beyond the mere fitting and setting, making mortises, fitting coal-plates, traps, &c. when such are required, unless they be rubbed, which occasions, of course, an extra charge. York pavings and landings are taken by the superficial foot, at such a thickness; and copings, sills, steps, &c. by the foot run, according to their size.

Plasterer, &c.—No art in the economy of building contributes more to produce internal neatness and elegance, and no one is less absolutely important, as far as the use and stability of a structure are concerned, than that of the plasterer. Its very general application, too, is of comparatively late date; for wainscoted walls, and boarded or boarded and canvassed ceilings, or naked joists alone, are frequently found in houses of even less than a century old, both in this country and on the Continent.

The plasterer, as the term imports, works in plastic, adhesive compositions, which are laid on walls, both internally and externally, to stop crevices, reduce inequalities, and produce an even, delicate surface, capable of receiving any decoration that may be applied to it, either in colour or otherwise. These compositions are as various as the modes of applying them, the rudest being a compost of loam, a marly clay, and lime; this is used only for the commonest purposes, and being laid on in one coat, is washed over with a thin mixture of lime and water, which process is termed white-washing; the highest work of the plasterer is the making an imitation of marbles and other costly stones, of the purest calcined gypsum, mixed with a solution of gum and isinglass, and colouring matter to produce the required imitation. For the more common operations of plastering, however, comparatively few tools and few materials are required. The plasterer is attended by a labourer, who supplies his boards with mortar, and by a boy on the scaffold with him to feed his hawk; he is necessarily furnished with a lathing hammer, a laying-on trowel, a hawk, floats, brushes, jointing trowels and rules, moulds and straight edges, together with a screen, spade, rake, and hod, for his labourer, and a feeding-spade or server for his hawk-boy. The lathing hammer is chequered on the face with indented lines, to make it less liable to slip over the head of the nail; the upper or back part of the hammer is made like a hatchet, but very narrow, and on its inner side or edge there is sometimes a square nick or groove, by means of which the workman is enabled to draw a nail that has gone awry. The laying-on trowel is a thin plate of hardened iron or steel, ten inches long and two and a half inches wide, rounded at one end and square at the other end or heel; it is very slightly convex on the face; and to the back, about the middle of it, the spindle or handle is riveted in at right angles, which, returning in the direction of the heel parallel to the tool, fits into a rounded wooden handle, by which the workman grasps it. The plasterer is obliged to keep this implement particularly clean and dry when he is not actually using it, lest it rust in the slightest degree, as it is clear that the brown oxide of iron would sadly discolour his finer work on touching it again with the trowel. The hawk is a piece of wood about ten inches square, to receive a small portion of mortar on, for the convenience of carrying it readily up to the wall or ceiling, to be there delivered and spread by the trowel. The hawk is traversed across the back by a dove-tailed piece,

Building. into which the wooden handle is fixed at right angles, and by this the workman holds it in his left hand. A hand-float is a piece of board shaped something like a plastering trowel, with a ledge-handle to it, and is used to rub over the finished work, to produce a hard, smooth, and even face. A quirk-float is of wood also, and is angularly shaped to work in angles; and a derby is a long two-handed float, which is that principally used in forming the floated coat of lime and hair. The plasterer's brush is broad and thin, with a stout or slight row of coarse or fine hair, as it may be required for rough or fine work. Jointing trowels are thin plates of polished steel, of triangular shape, the point being a very acute angle; the handle is adapted to the heel or base of the tool. They are of three or four different sizes, and are principally used in making good cornices, and joining them at their internal and external angles, which is called mitring. Jointing rules are auxiliary to the jointing trowel. Moulds are pieces of hard wood cut to the contour of cornices or separate mouldings, to assist the workmen in forming them readily. For work of any importance the moulds are cut in copper plates, which are inserted in the wooden stock, and narrow pieces of wood are fixed to the mould transversely, to guide and steady them along the screeds. A straight edge is a board of considerable length, shot perfectly straight on one edge, to bring the plastering on a wall or ceiling to a perfectly even surface, by traversing it in every direction. A screen is a large parallelogramic wooden frame, on which metal wires are fixed at regulated distances from each other, to act as a sieve. This is propped up in nearly a vertical direction by a counter-frame hinged to it like a common step ladder, and the coarser materials which enter into the composition of plastering mortar are thrown against its outer face, to separate the particles which are too large for the purpose from the finer. The sand and lime, too, are mixed much more efficiently and completely by screening them together than in any other manner. The spade and hod are like those of the bricklayer's labourer. The rake is used to separate the hair used in the mortar, and distribute it throughout the mass. The hawk boy's server is about the size and shape of a common garden hoe, but the handle is in the direction of the instrument. With it the boy rebats the mortar on the board, to destroy any set it may have taken, and delivers it in small pats or portions on to the plasterer's hawk.

The plasterer's materials are laths and lath nails, lime, sand, hair and plaster, of which are formed coarse stuff or lime and hair, fine stuff, gauge stuff, &c.; and besides these, a variety of stuccoes and cements, together with various ingredients to form colouring washes, &c. are more or less in request.

Laths are narrow strips of some straight grained wood (in this country they are generally of fir, though oak laths are sometimes used), in lengths of three and four feet, or to suit the distances at which the joists or quarterings are set, and in thickness a quarter and three eighths of an inch; those of the former thickness are called single, and those of the latter lath and a half. Lath nails are either wrought, cut, or cast, and of course vary in length to the thicker and thinner laths; cast nails are in common use in this country with fir laths. Coarse stuff is composed of ox or horse hair from the hide, in addition to the lime and sand mortar of the bricklayer and mason; this is intended to act as a sort of bond to net or tie it together, by being distributed throughout the whole mass, and in single hairs if it were possible. The hair should be as long as it can be procured, and free from grease and filth of every kind. Road drift is unfit to be used for mortar, unless it be completely cleansed from all animal and vegetable

matter, and of all mud and clay. Loamy or argillaceous earths are constantly used in the composition of this mortar, as its quality is thought unimportant, so that it can be made to hang together. The presence of clayey matter making the mortar unctuous and tenacious, they are used without or with very little hair; the consequence is, that the slightest injury affects the work made with them. The mortar thus composed readily absorbs and retains moisture, bursts, and crumbles away; and if it be effectually protected from injury of that kind, it becomes rotten in a comparatively short space of time, and frequently is the means of decay in the laths, and even in the larger timbers. Nothing but clean sharp sand should be used with the lime and hair in the composition of this, any more than of brick mortar. Fine stuff is a mortar made of fine white lime, exceedingly well slaked with water, or rather macerated in water to make the slaking complete; for some purposes a small quantity of hair is mixed up with this material. Fine stuff very carefully prepared of the finest powdered lime macerated so completely as to be held in solution by the water, thus forming a mere paste, which is then allowed to evaporate until it is of a sufficient consistence for working, is called putty. Gauge stuff is composed of about three fourths of putty and one fourth of calcined gypsum or plaster of Paris; this may be mixed only in small quantities at a time, as the plaster or gauge renders it liable to set very rapidly. Bastard stucco is made of two thirds fine stuff, without hair, and one third of very fine and perfectly clean sand (the cleanliness or purity of sand may be determined by the facility with which it may, when in a moist state, be struck off from the hand without leaving a soil); and common stucco is composed of about three fourths of clean sharp sand and one fourth of the best lime, well incorporated. This must be protected from the air from the time it is made until it is required to be laid on the walls. The cement best known and most commonly used in this country is called Parker's, or Parker's Roman cement. This material, when of good quality, with fine clean sharp sand, in the proportion of about three of the former to one of cement, and well executed, forms an admirable external coating for walls, and is generally preferable to any other with which we are acquainted.

The various coatings of plastering are thus designated: On laths, plastering in one coat simply is said to be laid, and in two coats, laid and set. In three-coat plastering on laths, however, the first is called the pricking up, the second is said to be floated, and the third set. On brick or stone walls, without the intervention of laths, plastering in one plain coat is termed rendering; with two coats, a wall is said to be rendered and set; and in three, rendered, floated, and set. Before the plasterer begins to lath a ceiling, he proves the under face of the joists, to which he has to work, by the application of a long straight edge, and makes out any slight inequalities in them, when the work is not to be of a very superior description, by nailing on laths or slips to bring them as nearly even as he can. When the inequalities are great, or if the work is to be of fine quality, he recurs to the carpenter, who takes off inordinate projections with his adze, and nails on properly dressed slips where the joists do not come down low enough, and thus brings the whole to a perfect level. This operation is called furring, that is, putting on pieces of fir, though it is vulgarly termed and frequently spelt *furring*. If it be a framed floor of ceiling joists the plasterer has to work to, it is tolerably sure to be straight; but the carpenter must have firmed down on the beams or binders to the level of the ceiling joists, from end to end of them. When the ceiling joists are nailed to the beams or binders, however, nothing of this kind need be necessary. If a

Building. ceiling is to be divided into compartments or panels, the projecting or depending portions must be bracketed or cradled down to receive the laths. It is an important point to be attended to in plastering on laths, and in ceilings particularly, that the laths should be attached to as small a surface of timber as possible, because the plastering is not supported or upborne by its adhesion or attachment to the wood, but by the keying of the mortar itself, which passes through between the laths, and bends round over them. If then the laths are in constantly recurring contact with thick joints and beams, the keying is as constantly intercepted, and the plastering in all such places depends entirely on the portions between them which are properly keyed. Under a single floor, therefore, in which the joints are necessarily thick, a narrow fillet should be nailed along the middle under the whole length of them all, to receive the laths and keep them at a sufficient distance from the timber, to allow the plastering to key under it; and thus too the surface might be made more perfectly even, by blocking out the fillets, and contrariwise, as it is in single floors that inequalities mostly occur. This being all arranged, the plasterer commences lathing.

The laths should be previously sorted, reserving the crooked and knotty, if there be such, for inferior works, and selecting the best for the work of most importance, so that the workman shall find none to his hand that is not fit to be brought in. Taking a lath that will reach across three or four openings, he strikes a nail into it on one of the intermediate joints, at about three eighths of an inch from the one before it, and then secures the ends of that and the one that it meets of the last row with one nail, leaving the other end of the lath he has just set to be secured in the same manner with that which shall meet it of the next bay in continuation. It is of importance also that he pay attention to the bonding of his work, either by using longer and shorter laths in bays or squares, and in breaking the headings, or with laths of the same length, the first and last courses or bays only having the bond formed by half laths. In lathing on quartering partitions and battened walls, the bonding is not a matter of much importance; nor is the thickness of the timbers behind the latter of so much consequence as in a ceiling, because the toothing which the thickness of the lath itself affords to the plastering is enough to support it vertically; but, nevertheless, the more complete the keying, even in works of this kind, the better, as the toothing above will not protect it from any exciting cause to fall forwards, or away from the laths. The thinner or weaker sort of lath too is generally considered sufficiently strong for partitions, whilst the stronger is used for ceilings. Thin weak laths, if used in a ceiling, are sure to produce inequalities, by sagging with or yielding to the weight attached to them. A chance one or two weak ones in a ceiling of otherwise strong laths may be the ruin of the best piece of work. Care should be taken therefore not to allow a thin lath, or one of unequal thickness, to go on to a scaffold with thicker and more equable ones, lest the workman should, through carelessness or otherwise, put it up with the rest. When the lathing is completed, the work is either laid or pricked up, according as it is to be finished with one, two, or three coats. Laying is a tolerably thick coat of coarse stuff or lime and hair brought to a tolerably even surface with the trowel only; for this the mortar must be well tempered, and of moderate consistence,—thin or moist enough to pass readily through between the laths, and bend with its own weight over them, and at the same time stiff enough to leave no danger that it will fall apart, a contingency, however, that in practice frequently occurs in consequence of badly composed or badly tempered mortar, or bad workmanship, sufficient force not having been used with pro-

perly consistent mortar to force it through and form keys. **Building.** If the work is to be of two coats, that is, laid and set, when the laying is sufficiently dry, it is roughly swept with a birch broom to roughen its surface, and then the set, a thin coat of fine stuff, is put on. This is done with the common trowel alone, or only assisted by a wetted hog's bristle brush, which the workman uses with his left hand to strike over the surface of the set, while he presses and smooths it with the trowel in his right. If the laid work should have become very dry, it must be slightly moistened before the set is put on, or the latter, in shrinking, will crack and fall away. This is generally done by sprinkling or throwing the water over the surface from the brush. For floated or three-coat work, the first, or pricking up, is roughly laid on the laths, the principal object being to make the keying complete, and form a layer of mortar on the laths to which the next coat may attach itself. It must, of course, be kept of tolerably equal thickness throughout, and should stand about one quarter or three eighths of an inch on the surface of the laths. When it is finished, and while the mortar is still quite moist, the plasterer scratches or scores it all over with the end of a lath in parallel lines from three to four inches apart. The scoring should be made as deep as possible without laying bare the laths; and the rougher their edges are the better, as the object is to produce a surface which the next coat will readily attach itself to. When the pricked up coat is so dry as not to yield to pressure in the slightest degree, preparations may be made for the floating. Ledges or margins of lime and hair, about six or eight inches in width, and extending across the whole breadth of a ceiling or height of a wall or partition, must be made in the angles or at the borders, and at distances of about four feet apart throughout the whole extent; these must be made perfectly straight with one another, and be proved in every way by the application of straight edges: technically these ledges are termed *screeds*. The screeds are gauges for the rest of the work; for when they are ready, and the mortar in them is a little set, the interspaces are filled up flush with them; and a derby float or long straight edge being made to traverse the screeds, all the stuff that projects beyond the line is struck off, and thus the whole is brought to a straight and perfectly even surface. To perfect the work, the screeds on ceilings should be levelled, and on walls and partitions plumbed. When the floating is sufficiently set and nearly dry, it is brushed with a birch broom as before described, and the third coat or set is put on. This for a fine ceiling that is to be whitened or coloured must be of putty; but if it is to be papered, ordinary fine stuff, with a little hair in it, will be better. Walls and partitions that are to be papered are also of this latter, or of rough stucco; but for paint the set must be of bastard stucco trowelled. This coat must be worked of exactly the same thickness throughout, to preserve to the external surface the advantage that has been obtained by floating. For all but this last mentioned, the set on floated work, the trowel and brush are considered sufficient to produce fine and even work; but trowelled stucco must moreover be hand-floated. In this operation the stucco is set with the trowel in the usual manner, and brought to an even surface with that tool to the extent of two or three yards. The workman then takes the hand-float in his right hand, and rubs it smartly over the surface, pressing gently to condense the material as much as possible. As he works the float he sprinkles the surface with water from the brush in his left hand, and eventually produces a texture as fine and smooth almost as that of polished marble. The process of plastering on the naked brick or stone wall differs but little, except in names, from

Building. that we have described as the mode on lath. The single coat, or equivalent for laying, on lath, is rendering, and it need differ only in the quantity of hair, which may be less than is necessary for laying, and in the consistence of the mortar, which may be made more plastic, to work easier, and because in a moister state it will attach itself more firmly to the wall; the wall, however, must itself be wetted before the rendering is applied. The set is the same, and is put on in the same manner as to two-coat work on lath. For three coat, or floated work, the first or rough rendering should be made to fill up completely whatever crevices there may be in the work behind it, and be incorporated with it as much as possible. As its name imports, its surface may, indeed should, be rough; but it is not scratched or lined as the similar coat on lath is: for this, too, the wall must be previously wetted, that the mortar may the better attach itself to it. For the floating, screeds must be formed as before described, and the consecutive process is exactly the same as on lath, both for the floated and for the set coat. In almost every case in which plastering is to be floated, the workman finds a guide for the feet of his wall screeds in the narrow grounds which the joiner has previously fixed for his skirtings; from these he plumbs upwards, and makes his work perfectly flush with them.

Mouldings and cornices, as large combinations of mouldings and flat surfaces are called, in the angles of rooms, immediately under their ceilings, are formed with running moulds, and are generally executed before the setting coat is put on the walls and ceiling. If the cornice do not project more than about an inch and a half, or two inches, from the ordinary work, a backing of lime and hair will be sufficient; and if any one part only happen to be more than ordinarily protuberant, a row of nails from six to twelve inches apart stuck into the wall or ceiling in the line of that part will give it sufficient support. But if the general mass of the cornice be more than that amounts to, and extend above six or eight inches along the ceiling, it must be bracketed out, and the bracketing lathed and pricked up, as for ordinary work. This pricking up, or other preparation, must of course be perfectly set before the cornice is run; and there should be one fourth of an inch at least of clear space between the preparation and the mould in the nearest part. A wooden screed or parallel straight edge is tacked with brads on to the wall, and another on the ceiling, if the cornice be large and heavy, as guides or gauges for the mould, whose rests are chased to fit them; and then one man laying on gauge stuff in an almost fluid state with an angular trowel, another works the mould backwards and forwards over it, which strikes off what is superfluous, and gives the inverse of its form to the rest. The mould is never taken down from the work at right angles to the line of it, but is drawn off at the end, so that none of the parts of the moulding or cornice is injured or torn by it, which must otherwise frequently be the case, from the peculiar forms at times given to the details. If a cornice be too large and heavy to be executed at once, it may be done in the same manner at two or more times, in so many parts; and if any part or parts of a moulding or cornice is to be enriched, the space for it is left vacant by the mould, and the enrichment is afterwards supplied. As a cornice cannot be completed up to the angles by the mould, it is worked by hand in those situations to a joint. The joinings are termed mitres, and in forming them the plasterer uses the jointing tools we have already described. Models for enrichments are made by the modeller, according to the design or drawing submitted to him, and from them the plasterer makes wax moulds, or, as in ordinary practice, the modeller supplies the moulds in which the

ornament is cast in plaster of Paris. If the ornament be in recurring lengths or parts, as is usually the case, only one length or part is modelled, and casts of as many as are required are taken from the mould; some single ornaments, again, which are very large, require to be moulded and cast in parts, which are put together by means of cement. When the cast ornaments are sufficiently dry the pieces are scraped and trimmed, the joints made clean and even, and they are set in the cornice with plaster of Paris, with white lead, or with a composition called iron cement, as the case may require. If the castings have something in the cornice to rest upon, the first will do; but if there is nothing to retain or attach them but the cement, one of the two latter must be used. Flowers and other ornaments in ceilings which are too large and heavy to be trusted to adhesive matter alone, must be screwed on to wooden cradling behind and above them.

In plastering a wall with common stucco, and its use is mostly for outside work, the first thing to be done is to remove the dust from it by brushing, and then wetting it very completely with water; if the wall to be stuccoed be an old one, or one of which the joints have been drawn, the mortar of the joints must be chipped or even raked out, and the bricks picked, to expose a new and porous surface to the plastering before brushing and wetting. The wall is then covered with stucco in a fluid state, applied with a broad and strong hog's bristle brush, like common white-washing. When this is nearly dry the stucco must be laid on as in common rendering, unless the work is to be floated, when the process is nearly similar to that in floated plastering. Screeds must be formed at the highest and lowest extremities of the wall, or of that part of the wall which is in the same vertical line, and is not intercepted by string courses, and be returned at the angles, putting the whole surface into a sort of frame. These must be made perfectly straight and plumb, so as to be quite out of winding, by the careful application of the plumb-rule and straight edge. Inner vertical screeds must then follow at three or four feet apart across the whole surface, and be made to range exactly with the outer ones, and then the interstices must be filled in as before. As the work is made good it must be well rubbed with the hand-float, as in the execution of trowelled stucco internally, to compress the material, and produce a hard, even, and glossy surface. Preparations for cornices and other projections from the straight surface of the work must have been previously made in or on the brick or stone-work, by the protrusion of bricks, tiles, or whatever may be best suited to form a core, and the mouldings and cornices are run with moulds, in the manner described for the same things internally, only that in work of this kind no plastic material but the stucco itself is used; that is, there is no preparation of any softer material than the stucco itself put under it. In running cornices in this material, workmen are very apt to mix a little plaster of Paris with the stucco to make it set under the mould, and thus give sharpness and fulness to the mouldings; but this should not be permitted: for the plaster is not qualified to stand the weather as the stucco is, and, if mixed with it, will produce premature decay. (For information concerning the various modes of preparing it, see the article *Stucco*.) When the stucco is perfectly dry, it may be painted in oil colours, or be coloured in distemper; and in either case it is generally ruled over the surface with a lead point, to give it the appearance of gauged stone-work.

Rendering in Roman cement is executed almost exactly in the same manner as stucco rendering is, only that it is laid on the saturated wall directly, without the preliminary operation of roughing in, or washing the surface with a solution of the material. The same process,

Building.

Building. too, is followed in floating this cement, and with the same exceptions; and as, in addition to its superior hardness and capacity for duration, it is a quick-setting cement, it is far preferable to any of the common stuccoes for running cornices, mouldings, &c. Roman cement, or, as it is vulgarly called by most persons concerned in the operations of building, compo, a contraction of composition, may, like stucco, be painted in oil or coloured; but instead of a size colour, which is used for almost every other purpose in plastering, the colour for this composition is mixed with diluted sulphuric acid. This too may be lined and tinted to imitate stone and stone-work of any description.

It may not be amiss here to refer to the causes of the premature decay which takes place in stuccoes and cements when used externally as a coating to walls. The primary cause is the presence of muddy earth and decayed animal and vegetable matter in the sand used with the lime and cement. To this may be added frequent impurities in the limes and cements themselves, particularly of argillaceous matter in the former, and sometimes to the too great proportions of lime or cement to sand. These things might, however, remain quiescent for a long time, if the work were well protected from access of moisture, which is the grand exciting cause. The paint, or distemper wash, on the surface, is generally sufficient to prevent the rain which may beat against a vertical face from penetrating, especially if the work have been well hand-floated and trowelled, to make it close and compact; but the evil arises from exposure above, and from the numberless horizontal unfloated surfaces which are constantly presented. These receive and collect the water, and convey in streams over the vertical surfaces what is not immediately absorbed; and the work thus becoming saturated, frost freezes and bursts it, or warmth calls the vegetative powers of the impurities in it into action, and the whole is covered with a green sward. Let the sand of which a plaster composition is to be formed, whether with lime or cement, be washed until it no longer discolours clean water, and be well compounded with cementitious matter free from the impurities with which it is so frequently charged; let the work be well hand-floated and trowelled, particularly on the backs or upper horizontal surfaces of projections, and protected above by projecting eaves or otherwise; and the work, with common care and attention to paint or distemper at intervals, will last as long as any thing of the kind can be expected, or is found, to last anywhere.

A cheap and useful covering for external walls which are protected by projecting eaves, in plain buildings, is rough cast. This is executed in the following manner. The surface is first roughed in, or rendered with lime and hair; and when that is set dry, another coat of the same material is superadded, laid as evenly as it can be without floating, and as soon as a piece of two or three yards in extent is executed, the workman lays on it an almost fluid mixture of fine clean gravel and strong lime, which have been well mixed together. This is immediately washed with any ochreous colour that may be desired, and the whole dries into one compact mass.

In renovating and repairing plastering, the whole surface is first well washed to remove the dirt which may have attached itself, and as much of the earthy matter of the previous coat of whitening or colouring as will come away: any injuries the work may have received, such as cracks and fractures, are then repaired; and when the new stuff is quite dry, the joinings are scraped to produce an even surface, and the whole is again whitened or coloured once or twice, or oftener, as may be required, to make it bear out well. Stuccoed walls which have been painted must be well rubbed with pumice stone, to take

off the old paint as much as possible before they are newly **Building.** painted.

Plastering is measured in feet and inches, and valued by the yard superficial of nine square feet. It is taken under separate heads according to the nature and description of the work, such as, rendered; rendered and set; rendered, floated, and set; and with lath, for the lathing and plastering are valued together; lathed and laid; lathed, laid, and set; and lathed, plastered, floated, and set. Whitening and colouring are taken under separate heads, and the quantities of them are reduced to yards also. Work done in narrow slips, such as to the jambs and soffits of doorways and other openings, is measured by the foot superficial, and so are the backs of niches, niche-heads, &c. Arises, or external angles and quirks, are taken extra by the running foot, and beads and other very small mouldings are measured in the same manner. Larger mouldings, however, and cornices, whether plain or enriched, are taken by the foot superficial, and the quantity is ascertained by multiplying the length, minus once the projection, by the girth, of the moulding or cornice, which is best determined by measuring its mould with a tape or cord. Enrichments are either numbered or taken at so much the running foot, making the modeller's an extra charge, if the design was original and required special modelling and moulding; and mitres are taken at so much a piece beyond a limited number. This number, in an ordinary room, is generally the four which necessarily occur in its four angles, making those which are usually occasioned by the projection of the chimney-breast extra; but it is not an uncommon practice to bring them within the limit, and count only all that may occur above eight, for no difference is made between internal and external angles. Circular work, whether it be convex or concave, of every kind, may be charged about one fourth higher than straight. Stuccoes and other compositions are also valued by the yard, and according to the description of the work, with almost similar exceptions to those mentioned with regard to common plastering. Used externally, however, all the arises or external angles, throatings, grooves, chamfers, &c. are taken as extra by the running foot at such a width.

In the practice of measuring plasterer's work, it is customary to take the whole surface at first, and then whatever deductions there may be. Thus the side of a room is measured over all, from the upper edge of the skirting grounds up to the cornice. The windows and doors are deducted by taking to the outside of their framed grounds for the width, and from the skirting grounds up to the top of those of the door or window for the height. If there be more than one of each, or either of them, to deduct, of course the same dimension will serve for all, multiplied by as many times as each deduction occurs. A ceiling also is generally taken over the whole surface, from cornice to cornice, a chimney-breast or other projection being made a deduction. It is a moot point whether the plasterer should not be allowed that part of the ceiling and wall which is covered by the cornice, as he has actually finished the whole except setting. When the cornice is bracketed, however, he may fairly claim up to the brackets.

Scaffolding is not generally made an extra charge with new work; but with old work it is, if scaffolding be necessary; for, under ordinary circumstances, the plasterer is enabled to wash, stop, and white the ceilings and walls of rooms from trellises, with boards laid across them. In lofty saloons and halls, churches, &c. scaffolding is indispensable, and must then be charged. A scaffold is necessary, too, to a front that is to be plastered in any way; but it may be afterwards washed, repaired, and coloured, from a ladder, without the intervention of a scaffold.

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Slater.—The principle on which slates are laid is that which is employed in plain tilting. To a roof with projecting eaves, a wide board is placed over the rafters feet; but when the eaves fall into gutters, the gutter-board is made wide enough to receive the eaves-course. For light slating it is necessary to board a roof all over. This is done by the carpenter, and is called sound-boarding; but for strong heavy slates, fillets or battens are better; and these are laid by the slater himself, to suit the length of his slates. Three inches wide and one inch thick is a sufficient size for them, if the rafters be not more than twelve inches apart. Against gable or party-walls, a feather-edged board called a tilting fillet is laid to turn the water from the wall.

Before he begins to work on a roof, the slater shapes and trims the slates on the ground. With a large knife or chopper called a saixe, sax, or zax, he strikes off the unevennesses on one side of a slate, making it as nearly straight as he can; he then runs a gauge along it, marking the greatest width the slate will bear, and, cutting to that line, makes it perfectly parallel. He next, with a square, brings the thickest and best end to right angles with the sides, generally by chopping, but sometimes by sawing; and then marking upward from the squared foot or tail, makes two nail holes, where, by calculating the gauge the slate in hand will bear, he knows the fillet must come. All the slates being thus gauged to width, dressed, and sorted in lengths, they are then carried on to the roof by the labourers in rotation, beginning with the longest and largest for the lowest courses. The first course the slater lays is little more than half the length of that which is intended to cover it, and is necessary to break the joints at the eaves. This is called the doubling eaves-course; and the covering eaves-course is brought to the same foot-line, completely to cover it. Then to ascertain the gauge: From the length of the slate deduct the bond, which should never be less than two inches, and need not be more than three and a half inches, and the half of what remains will be the gauge. Thus, if the bond be fixed at three inches, and the slate is two feet three inches in length, the gauge will be one foot. This gauge or margin is set up from the foot of the eaves-course at each end, and a line strained to mark it along the whole length, and so on, to the ridge or top, where another half-course is required to complete the work, and that is in its turn secured by a covering of sheet lead. To a hipped roof care is taken to complete every course up to the angle, by cutting slates to fit its inclination; and these are also covered by an overlap of sheet lead. In nailing a slate, it must not be strained or bent in the slightest degree, or it will certainly fly in some sudden atmospheric change, to which it is of course constantly liable, even if it escape fracture, from being trodden on by the workmen themselves or by others. Copper, being less liable to oxidize from exposure to common causes than any other metal that will answer the purpose, is generally used for slate nails. Zinc is also used for the purpose; and iron tinued and painted nails are sometimes substituted by dishonesty on the part of the workman or builder, or bad economy on that of the proprietor. Slating should be well pointed on the inside, or torched, as the operation is sometimes termed, with lime and hair, to keep out the wind, and prevent snow from driving in, which it will do in an almost incredible manner if it be not thus hindered. Particular attention should be paid to this, as the neglect of it occasions more damaged ceilings than even broken slates, and more catarrhs than arise from broken panes of glass.

A very light and neat covering is produced, by laying wide slates side by side, and covering their joints with narrow slips bedded in putty, the overlap at the ends

being no more than the bond is with the usual mode. It is known as patent slating, and was introduced by the late Mr Wyatt, though he never obtained a patent for it. Indeed it is in principle the mode which was adopted in ancient Greece in covering the roofs of temples. Neither boards nor fillets are used, the slate bearing from rafter to rafter, and to the rafters the slates are screwed. The covering slips are also screwed, as well as bedded in putty. Slating of this kind may be laid at no greater elevation than ten degrees; whereas, for slating in the ordinary way, the angle should never be much less than twenty-five degrees, though large slates with a three and a half inch bond, carefully laid and well pointed, may perhaps be trusted at a rise of twenty degrees.

The mode above described of ascertaining the gauge or margin by the bond, is equally applicable to every sort of roof-covering that is made up of small inflexible parallelogramic slabs or tablets; and it should be borne in mind that the greater the angle is at which the rafters rise, or, in technical language, the higher the pitch of the roof, the less the bond may be, and vice versa. With slabs or tablets that vary in length, too, as slates generally do in this country as they are brought to market, it is the bond which it is of importance to observe; but if they are of an invariable length, as tiles are, it is sufficient that the gauge or margin be attended to.

The best slate this country produces is from the quarries of Bangor in Caernarvonshire, and of Kendal in Westmoreland. Good slate is also procured in the neighbourhood of Tavistock in Devonshire, and in some parts of Scotland. The scantlings of slate are cut in the quarries to set sizes, and these are split into tablets, thicker or thinner according to the size of the slab and the capacity of the slate, for the inferior qualities are neither so compact in material, nor so clearly laminated or schistose, as the superior, and will not therefore rend so freely. The sizes of slates best known in the British market are distinguished by the names of ladies, countesses, duchesses, and queens. Ladies measure fifteen inches by eight, countesses twenty inches by ten, duchesses twenty-four inches by twelve, and queens thirty-six inches by twenty-four; and they are esteemed in proportion to their magnitude. Besides these, there is a slate which equals the queen in extent of surface, but is of very much greater thickness; this is called Welsh rag. A smaller slate, again, which is less indeed than the lady, and is cut from the refuse of large scantlings, is called a double. In size it does not often exceed twelve inches by six. Westmoreland slates are thick and heavy like the Welsh rag, but do not generally run so large.

The best slate is of a bluish-grey colour, and breaks before the sax like well-burnt pottery, and will ring in the same manner on being struck. Whitish or light grey-coloured slate is for the most part stony; dark blue or blackish slate, on the other hand, cuts very freely; but it absorbs moisture, and decays rapidly.

Slater's work is measured by the square of a hundred superficial feet. In a parallelogramic piece of slating, as in a gabled roof with projecting eaves, the length along the eaves by the breadth or height from that to the ridge, with the addition to the latter dimension of the gauge or margin for doubling the eaves, will give the quantity of one side. Projections for chimney-shafts or breasts, skylights, &c. must be deducted; but an addition must be made of the run round them by six inches, for cutting and waste. In a hipped roof the length from point to point of the eaves on one of the long sides of a quadrilateral roof, by the breadth or height, with the addition as before, will give that side and half of each of the ends. The other side will, of course, in the same manner, include

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Carpenter.—For the scientific principles of carpentry we must refer the reader to the article under that head, and to the articles ROOF, FRAMING OF MASTS, &c., and TIMBER. Here we have merely to speak of the practical details of carpenters' work in the operations of building;—indeed, of *carpentering*, or the practice of carpentry, considering it as a mechanical art.

The carpenter works in wood, which he receives from the sawyer in beams, scantlings, and planks, or boards, which he cuts and combines into bond-timbers, wall-plates, floors, and roofs. He is distinguished from the joiner by his operations being directed to the mere carcass of a building,—to things which have reference to structure only. Almost every thing the carpenter does in and to an edifice is absolutely necessary to its stability and efficiency, whereas the joiner does not begin his operations until the carcass is complete; and every article of joiners' work might at any time be removed from a building without undermining it or affecting its most important qualities. Certainly, in the practice of building, a few things do occur which it is difficult to determine to whose immediate province they belong; but the distinction is nevertheless sufficiently broad for general purposes. The carpenter, with the bricklayer or mason, and some of the minor artificers, constructs the frame or hull; and the joiner, with the plasterer and others, decorates and rigs the vessel: on the former the actual existence of the ship depends, and on the latter depends her fitness for use.

The carpenter frames or combines separate pieces of timber by scarfing, notching, cogging, tenoning, pinning, and wedging; and the tools he uses are the rule, the axe, the adze, the saw, the mallet, hammers, chisels, gouges, augers, hook-pins, a square, a bevel, a pair of compasses, and a gauge, together with the level and plumb-rule; besides these, planes, gimlets, pincers, a sledge hammer, a maul or beetle, wedges, and a crow-bar, may be considered useful auxiliaries, though they are not absolutely necessary to the performance of works of carpentry.

To scarf is to cut away equally from the ends, but on the opposite sides, of two pieces of timber, for the purpose of tying or connecting them lengthwise. This is done to wall-plates and bond-timber, and especially to beams when they are required of greater length than can be procured without joining. (See CARPENTRY.) The usual mode of scarfing bond and wall-plates is by cutting about three fifths through each piece on the upper face of the one and the under face of the other, about six or eight inches from the end, transversely, making what is technically termed a *calf* or *heaf*, and longitudinally from the end, from two fifths down on the same side, so that the pieces lap together with a sort of half dovetail. The heavy supererogating weight of the wall and joists renders it impossible that they should be drawn apart without tearing the fibres asunder or lifting the weight. (See fig. 20.) Nevertheless these joints are generally spiked, and it is always required that they be made to fall in or under a plate. Notching is either square or dovetailed; it is used in connecting the ends of wall-plates and bond-timber at the angles, in letting joists down on beams or binders, purlines on principal rafters, &c. Nos. 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5, fig. 21, show varieties of notches applied as we have described. No. 1 is a simple square notch or halving of the ends of bond-timbers or wall-plates at a right angle; No. 2, a dovetailed notch. No. 3, the notch most commonly used: it is similar to No. 1, but that the ends are allowed to run on so that the one piece grasps the other, and each

forms a cog to the other. No. 4 is an oblique-angled, dovetailed notch; and No. 5 shows how joints are notched or let down on beams and binders, and purlines on principal rafters. A notch is cut into the under edge of the joist or purline an inch or an inch and a half in depth, and considerably shorter than the beam, binder, or rafter is in thickness. Notches are also cut down on the upper angles of the bearing pieces as long as the rider is thick, as deep as the notch before described of the latter is, and so far in as to leave a thickness on its own edge equal to the length of the notch in the riding joist or purline. In the diagram one joint is indicated in its place let down in the notch, and another indicates the notch in its own edge, and leaves exposed the notches in the binder. Cogging, or cocking as it is vulgarly termed, is the last-mentioned species of notch extended on one side, and leaving a narrow tooth or cog alone in the bearing-piece flush with its upper face, No. 1, fig. 22. It is used principally in tailing joists and beams on wall and ten-plates, and the cog is here made narrower, because the end of the joist or rider coming immediately beyond the plate, that part which forms the shoulder of the notch would be liable, on being strained, to be clipped off or torn away, if it were not kept as long as possible; and it is not of so much importance to guard against weakening a wall-plate which is supported along its whole length, as a beam, binder, or principal rafter, which rests on distant points alone. No. 2 of the same diagram shows another mode of tailing on joists and beams by a dovetail notch, which, to distinguish it from the flat notches, Nos. 2 and 4, fig. 21, is called cocking, or cogging also, though the operation decidedly is not cogging. This is a good mode if the timber be so well seasoned as not to be likely to shrink more; but it would be improved by allowing the rider to take a bearing in a notch like that to No. 1 before the dovetail commenced, as at No. 3, for in the ordinary mode it is weakened in a point of great importance.

Tenoning implies mortising also, as a matter of course. They are the names of the two operations necessary to one result,—that of producing a connection between two pieces by inserting part of the end of one into a hole of similar size cut in the side or edge of the other. A tenon is formed by cutting in on each side or edge of a piece of timber, near its end, transversely, to a certain depth, or rather, leaving a certain part of the breadth or depth uncut, and then cutting in longitudinally from the ends as far from each edge as the transverse cuts have been made in depth, thus removing two square prisms and leaving a third undivided. This is the tenon. An excavation in the side of a piece of timber, of a certain depth, in the direction of its thickness, parallel to its edges, and bounded lengthwise by lines at right angles to them, is a mortise. Tenons and mortises are made of exactly corresponding size, and are most frequently at equal distances from one or the other side or edge of the two pieces to be conjoined; and for the most part, too, every angle formed in the process of tenoning, both internal and external, is a right angle. Tenons are called joggles in some situations, when they are not intended to be borne upon; and their use is merely to keep the piece of timber to which they belong steadily in its place, without being liable to slight accidents from lateral pressure or violence. In combining timbers by means of mortises and tenons, to produce as great a degree of strength as possible, it must be obvious that the object to be kept in view is to maintain the end or tenon of the one as large and efficient as it may be, and weaken the other as little as possible in forming the mortise. For the efficiency of the mortised piece in a horizontal bearing, it is clear that as much of its thickness should be below the mortise as possible, as at *a*, fig. 23; for if it be put low, as at *b*, the superincumbent weight on

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the tenon would more readily split or rend it in the direction of the grain, as indicated; but the case is inverted with the tenoned pieces. With the mortise at *a* the tenon could only have the efficiency of so much of the piece to which it belongs as there is of it above its under surface, which is a very small part of its depth; whereas with the tenon at *b* it would command the power of the greatest part of the piece. To guard as much as possible against the danger of too great a mortise and too small a tenon on one side and the other, and to obviate the difficulty arising from the efficiency of one or the other of the two pieces being affected by putting the tenon too high or too low, a compound, called a tusk tenon, is used for almost all horizontal bearings of any importance, especially to joists and binders, to trimmers, beams, girders, breastsummers, &c. The body of the tenon in this is a little above the middle of the end, and it runs out two, three, or four inches, or more, as the case may require. Below it the tusk protrudes, and above it the shoulder is cut down at an obtuse angle with the horizontal line, giving the strength of the whole depth of the timber above the under tusk to the tenon, and giving it a bearing in a shallow mortise, whilst a greater depth of the mortised piece than the tusk rests on receives the body of the tenon, and so protects its comparatively narrow margin from undue pressure. The diagram No. 1, fig. 24, shows the tusk tenon, with the section of a beam into which it is mortised; and No. 2 indicates respectively the appearance of the mortise in front. See also CARPENTRY.

Pinning is the insertion of nearly cylindrical pieces of wood or iron through a tenon, to detain it in the mortise, or prevent it from being drawn out by any ordinary force. For this purpose the pin is inserted either in the body, or beyond the thickness, of the mortised piece, as indicated at *a*, fig. 24, or at *c*, fig. 25. Wedging (see 46, No. 2, fig. 25) is the insertion of triangular prisms, whose converging sides are under an extremely acute angle, into or by the end of a tenon, to make it fill the mortise so completely, or bind it so tightly, that it cannot be easily withdrawn. The wedging of tenons also assists in restoring to the mortised piece of timber much of the strength it had lost by the excision of so much of its mass, which indeed the tenon itself does if it fit closely in every direction; but the assistance of the wedge renders the restoration more perfect than the tenon could be made to do of itself, by compressing the fibres of both, longitudinally to those of the one, and transversely to those of the other, thus removing the tendency of the mortised piece to yield in any degree in the weakened part, though it cannot make up the loss in its tenacity occasioned by the section of its fibres.

In scarfing, coggling, and notching, the shoulders are always cut in with the saw; but the cheek is for the most part struck out with the mallet and chisel, or adze, as may be most convenient. Tenons should be made entirely with the saw: mortises are generally bored at the ends with a auger whose diameter equals their thickness; the intervening part is taken out with a wide chisel, cutting in the direction of the fibre; and the ends are squared down with a chisel whose breadth just equals the thickness of the mortise. Wood pins must be bent to insure the equal tenacity of their whole mass. Wedges are cut with the saw, but straight grained stuff is always preferred for them.

Bond-timbers and wall-plates should be carefully notched together at every angle and return, and scarfed at every longitudinal joint. The scarf shown at fig. 20 is sufficient for the purpose; and the notch at No. 3, fig. 21, may be preferred where notching is required; neither pinning nor nailing, however, can be of great use to either the notch or the scarf. Bond-timbers are passed along and through all openings, and are not cut out until such open-

ings are to be permanently occupied, that is, windows with their sash-frames, &c. because they assist in preventing irregular settlements, by helping to carry the weight of a heavy part along the substruction generally, instead of allowing it to press unduly upon the part immediately under it.

Whatever notches and cogs for beams and joists are required in wall and tem-plates, should be made before they are set on or in a wall; for, as they are always bedded in mortar, any thing that may break the set must be avoided.

It is incumbent on the carpenter to supply the brick-layer or mason with wood bricks in sufficient quantity, and to direct him where they should be placed to receive the joinder's fittings, or the battening, which the carpenter himself may have to put up for the plasterer.

The framed quartering partitions which may be required should be set up in every story before the beams and joists of the floors are laid, that their horizontal timbers may be notched on to the wall-plates, and that the joists or binders may be notched on to them if occasion require it; but they should be fixed rather below than above the level of the wall-plates, because they are not liable to settle down so much as the walls, though even that will depend in a great degree on the nature of the walling, and its liability to yield.

The carpenter makes and fixes or sets centres of all kinds, whether for single arches, vaults, or drains. The striking out of the centres, in the first instance, is necessarily contingent on the arches to be turned on them, for the forms of which the carpenter must look to the brick-layer or mason, whose instructions for describing arches will be found under the head STONE-MASONRY. Large centres are framed in distinct ribs, and are connected by horizontal ties; whilst small ones are made of mere boards cut to the required sweep, nailed together, and connected by battens notched into or nailed on their edges. Precision and stability are nevertheless equally and absolutely necessary, as it is impossible for an arch to be turned or set correctly on an incorrect or unstable centre.

The timbers or frame-work of floors is called naked flooring, and it is distinguished as single, double, and framed. Of these the first, under ordinary circumstances, is the strongest. Single flooring (see No. 1 and 2, fig. 29) consists of one row or tier of joists alone, bearing from one wall or partition to another, without any intermediate support, receiving the flooring boards on the upper surface or edges of the joists, and the ceiling, if there be one, on the lower. Joists in single floors should never be less than two inches in thickness, because of their liability to be split by the heads or nails of the boards if they are thinner; and they should never be much more, because of the keying of the ceiling, which is injuriously affected by great thickness of the joists. Twelve inches from joist to joist is the distance generally allowed; that dimension, however, from centre to centre of the joists would be better. Strength to almost any extent may be given by adding to the depth of the joists, and diminishing the distance between them; and they may be made firm, and be prevented from buckling or twisting, by putting struts between them. These struts are short pieces of batten, which should not be less than an inch, and need not be more than an inch and a half thick, and three or four inches wide, placed diagonally between the joists, to which they are nailed, in a double series, or crossing, as indicated by the full and dotted lines in the diagram, fig. 26; and they should be made to range in a right line, that none of their effect may be lost; and these ranges or rows should be repeated at intervals not exceeding five or six feet. The struts should be cut at the ends with exactly the same inclination or bevel, to fit closely. Great care should be taken, too, not to split the struts in nailing; but the trouble of boring

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Building. with a gimlet is saved by making a slight nick or incision with a wide-set saw for each nail, of which there should not be less than two at each end; and the nails used should be clasp-nails. If the struts were notched into the joists, it would add very materially to their efficiency, but perhaps not in proportion to the additional labour it would involve. This strutting should be



done to single flooring under any circumstances, as it adds materially to its firmness, and indeed to its strength, by making the joists transmit any stress or pressure from one to another. The efficiency of single flooring is materially affected by the necessity which constantly occurs in practice of trimming round fire-places and flues, and across vacuities. Trimming is a mode of supporting the end of a joist by tenoning it into a piece of timber crossing it, and called a trimmer, instead of running it on or into the wall which supports the ends of the other joists generally. A trimmer requires for the most part to be carried or supported at one or both of its ends by some of the joists, which are called trimming joists, and are necessarily made stouter than if they had to bear no more than their own share of the stress. Commonly it is found enough to make the trimmers and trimming joists from half an inch to an inch thicker than common joists. In trimming, tusk tenons should be used; and the long tongue or main body of the tenon should run not less than two inches through, and be draw-pinned, and wedged, moreover, if it do not completely fill the mortise in the direction of the length of the latter. The principal objection, however, to single flooring is, that sound readily passes through, the attachment of the boards above and of the ceiling below being to the same joists throughout. Another objection, and one already referred to, is the necessity of making the joists so thin, not to injure the ceilings, that they wish difficulty receive the flooring brads in their upper edges without splitting. A partial remedy for both these disadvantages is found in a mode sometimes adopted of making every third or fourth joist an inch or an inch and a half deeper than the intervening joists; and to these, ceiling joists are notched and nailed, or nailed alone, as shown in the diagram, fig. 26. This, by diminishing the number of points of contact between the upper and lower surface, for the ceiling joists must be carefully kept from touching the shallower joists of the floor, is less apt to convey sound from one story to another, and allows conveniently thin joists to be used for the ceiling without affecting those of the floor. It clearly, however, involves the necessity of coggling the deeper joists down so much more on the wall-plates on which their ends rest.

Double flooring (see sections No. 1 and 2, fig. 27, and plan No. 3, fig. 29) consists of three distinct tiers of joists, which are called binding, bridging, and ceiling joists. The binders in this are the real support of the floor; they run from wall to wall, and carry the bridging joists above and the ceiling joists below them. Binders need not be less and should not be much more than six feet apart, that is, if the bridging or flooring joists are not inordinately weak. The bridging joists form the upper tier, and are notched down on the binders with the notch shown at No. 5, fig. 21. The ceiling joists range under the binders, and are notched and nailed as shown at No. 1, fig. 27; but the notch must be taken entirely out of the ceiling joists, for the lower face or edge of the binder may not be wounded by any means or on any account, and moreover no good would be gained in any other respect by doing so. When it is an object to save height in the depth or thickness of this species of floor, the ceiling joists may be tenoned into the binders, instead of being nailed on to them; in this case the latter must be chase-mortised on

one side, for the convenience of receiving the former when they are themselves set and fixed. A chase is a long wedge-formed groove of the breadth or thickness of the mortise, of which it is indeed an elongation, so that the tenon at one end of a ceiling joist being inserted in the regular mortise in the binder prepared for it, that at the other end is driven along the chase up to its place in the mortise in the next binder. When ceiling joists are thus chase-mortised, their lower or under faces are allowed to come a little below the under face of the binders, and the space across is filled down by slips not wider than the ceiling joists are thick.



No. 2, fig. 27, shows a transverse compartment, or bay, of a floor in this manner; but it is not so good a one as the preceding; for, besides weakening the binders, by cutting so many mortises and chases in them, it is almost impossible to give the ceiling floor the degree of firmness and consistency it possesses in the other way, besides requiring the firing down on the binders. The same space would be better gained by cutting the bridging joists so much lower down; as they may, with the sort of notch indicated above, be let down fully half their depth without great injury to either bridging joists or binder, for they can always be made to fit tightly or firmly, and very little more labour is involved in nothing deeply than slightly.

Flooring is said to be framed when girders are used together with binding, bridging, and ceiling joists. (See sections No. 1 and 2, fig. 28, and plan No. 4, fig. 29.) Girders are large beams, in one or more pieces, according to the length required, and the size and strength of which timber can be procured. They are intended for longer bearings than mere binders may be trusted at, and may be strengthened to almost any extent by trussing; but to be efficient, the height of the truss must always be greater than the depth of the beam itself, and the strength is increased by extending that height as the space or bearing increases. A truss is indeed a wooden arch, whose lateral thrust will of course be greater the smaller the angle subtended by it, and vice versa. It has been a commonly received opinion, that a truss within the depth of a girder adds materially to its strength; but experiments have proved that very little advantage is gained by such a one when executed in the best manner, and that, badly executed, the beam or girder is weaker with the truss than without it. Binders are made dependent on the girders by means of double tusk tenons, and on and to them the bridging and ceiling joists are attached in the manner before described. No. 1, fig. 28, shows the transverse section of a compartment or bay of a framed floor; No. 2 the same longitudinally of the girder, and of the bridging and ceiling joists, and transversely of the binders. No. 1, fig. 29, is the plan of a single floor of joists tailing in on wall-plates with two chains of struts, and trimmed to a fire-place. No. 2 is a floor similar to No. 1, with ceiling joists nailed to deeper flooring joists at intervals, as shown in fig. 26. No. 3 is the plan of a double floor; and No. 4 is that of a framed floor of joists, bays of which are shown in section at fig. 27 and 28.

Partitions of timber are called quartering partitions, and they are generally framed. Common quartering partitions which rest on a wall or floor, and have nothing to carry, consist merely of a sill, a head, and common up-rights to receive the lath for plastering: these last may be simply joggled or tenoned into the head and sill, in the manner shown at c, fig. 23, and stiffened by struts or stretching pieces put between them and nailed. When, however, a quartering partition is over a vacuity, or rests only on certain points, and has, moreover, to sustain a weight, a floor perchance, it is framed and trussed with



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Shoring or propping up walls or floors, shoring for sewers, &c. is done by the carpenter. In appearance it is a simple operation, and under ordinary circumstances it really is so; but nevertheless it often demands the exercise of considerable skill and tact to determine and to counteract the tendency the part or thing to be supported has in one direction or another.

Pugging floors, furring down joists, and bracketing and cradling for plastering, and some other things, are operations performed indifferently by the carpenter or joiner, for they are not necessarily connected with the one more than the other of these two mechanical arts.

The labour of carpenter's work is valued by the square of one hundred superficial feet whenever it will admit of being so measured, and the timber is as generally valued by the cubic foot. It is customary for the carpenter's work to be measured at the same time with the walls and roof covering, or when the carcass of a building is completed, and before the joiner and plasterer commence their operations; for then it is all still exposed, and may be correctly and certainly measured, whereas much must be taken on trust if the measurement be deferred until the works are completely finished.

Bond timber, wood bricks, and wall and tem-plates, are taken under the same head, and are reduced to cubic feet of timber at so much per foot, including the labour of every kind on it. The naked flooring is taken on the surface from wall to wall, with a description of the nature of it, whether it be single, double, or framed—if trimmed to chimneys, party walls, stairs, or to any thing else—if notched or coggled to wall-plates and partition heads—the number and size of the large timbers, ceiling joists as notched and nailed to wall-plates, and as framed or notched and nailed to binders or common joists; and every thing indeed that affects the quantity of labour required in forming it. The superficial feet are reduced to squares for the labour and nails involved and used in forming and fixing or setting the floors. The timbers of which the flooring is composed are then taken in detail and in cubic quantities, and are said to be without labour, or with no labour. Roofing is measured in the same manner, by the superficial square, for labour and nails, taken on the common rafters from ridge to heel; the length of a rafter by the length of the roof for one side of a common span, and repeated or doubled for the other, noting also a description of the roof, whether it be lean-to or shed roofing, if on purlines and with struts; common span-roofing; curb roofing; span roofing with purlines and collar beams, strutted or otherwise, from walls or partitions; span roofing with framed principals, tie-beams, king-posts or queen-posts, straining beam, straining all, struts, purlines, pole-plates, and so on or as the case may be, and this too for labour and nails. All the timbers are then taken, measuring every one to the extent of any tenon or tenons at its ends, in cubic quantities also, and as without labour. Bolts, bars, straps, stirrups, &c. are taken separately, and their dimensions noted from which to ascertain their

weight. Gutter-boards and bearers are measured and valued by the foot superficial, according to the thickness of the former. Rough boarding for lead on flats, and sound boarding for slates or lead, are taken superficially, and reduced into squares. Centring to vaults is measured on the periphery of the arch, or round back of the centre, for the breadth, by the length, and is valued by the square; to apertures in the thickness of walls, by the foot, and to camber-arches, by number, so much a piece. Quartering partitions are measured by the square for labour and nails, and the material is taken by the cubic foot. Battening to walls is also measured by the square, but the stuff is generally included with the labour, as in boarding. Cradling and bracketing is valued by the foot superficial, and with reference to the quantity of stuff required or worked up. Any planing that may have been necessary, and it will happen at times on beams, joists, &c. when it is not intended to have a ceiling under the floor, is charged by the foot on the surface, and any beading or other moulding by the foot running.

It sometimes happens that a superficial quantity for labour and nails on framed timber cannot be obtained; in that case the timber is measured by the cubic foot as framed, or with the labour of framing included with its own cost, &c. In this case, however, it is necessary to make a distinction between one quantity and another, as the labour employed upon an equal quantity of stuff in framing some parts of a roof is much greater than is required in most floors. Many things, such as strong door and window frames, that are to be worked into the walls, story-posts, breastsummers, &c. are always taken as framed timber, with any addition that may occur of wrought, rebated, beaded, &c. as the case may be.

The price or value to be attached to the varieties of carpenter's work depends almost as much on the texture or hardness of the timber employed, as on its cost. What the timber itself should be charged at may be thus determined. To its price in the gross at the timber merchant's must be added the cost of carriage to the spot where it is to be employed, which will be so much the load of fifty cubic feet, or so much per foot; then to the cost of each cubic foot of timber add the price of four superficial feet of sawing, which will form a fair average for the variously sized scantlings, and one eighth of the increased amount to it as an allowance for waste in cutting up and working. This gives the actual cost, to the builder, of the timber as it is worked up; and if it is to be charged as with no labour, his profit and a remuneration for his own labour of superintending, &c. alone remain to be included. If, however, labour of any kind is to be charged with the stuff, it should be added first, and the builder's profit, &c. taken on both, or on the increased amount for the price per foot. The cost of labour depends so much upon such a variety of circumstances, that it is impossible to aid the inquirer materially in apportioning prices for the various operations. In this, as in other things, it is well, when the parties are not otherwise qualified to determine a scale of charges, to observe the time a man or a certain number of men are employed in executing so much work of a certain description, and compare the quantity by measurement with the time employed in executing it, or rather with the wages of the workmen for the time. In fixing a price for labour in carpenter's work, the size of the timbers, and the heights they have to be hoisted, together with such scaffolding and machinery for hoisting as may be found necessary, if the timbers be heavy, and the height and expense great, must be considered. As the timber used in shoring is not consumed, a charge is made for use and waste to the amount of one third of its value if it be much cut up, and one fourth if but little, in addition to the labour of setting up and taking down, whatever that may be.



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Builder. *Joiner.*—The principles of joinery also will be found in an article under that head in another part of this work; here we have merely to do with the modes of operation, and the tools employed by the workman, together with the manner of estimating or determining the value of his work.

The distinction between the operations of the carpenter and the joiner is shown in the commencement of the preceding section on the trade of the former. A man may be a good carpenter without being a joiner at all; but he cannot be a joiner without being competent, at least, to all the operations required in carpentry. It is, indeed, very truly remarked in the article JOINERY, "that the rough labour of the carpenter renders him in some degree unfit to produce that accurate and neat workmanship which is expected from a modern joiner;" but it is no less true that the habit of neatness and the great precision of the joiner, make him a much slower and less profitable workman than the practised carpenter, in works of carpentry.

The joiner operates on battens, boards, and planks, with saws, planes, chisels, gouges, hatchet, adze, gimblets and other boring instruments, which are aided and directed by chalked lines, gauges, squares, hammers, mallets, and a great many other less important tools; and his operations are principally sawing and planing in all their extensive varieties, setting out, mortising, dovetailing, &c. A great range of other operations, none of which can be called unimportant, such as paring, gluing up, wedging, pinning, fixing, fitting, and hanging, and many things besides which depend on nailing, &c. such as laying floors, boarding ceiling, wainscoting walls, bracketing, cradling, fiering, and the like. In addition to the wood on which the joiner works, he requires also glue, nails, brads, screws, and hinges, and accessorially he applies bolts, locks, bars, and other fastenings, together with pulleys, lines, weights, white-lead, holdfasts, wall-hooks, &c. &c.

Battens are narrow boards running from half an inch to an inch and a half or two inches thick, and from three to six or seven inches wide. A piece of stuff of too small a scantling to be a batten is called a fillet. The term board is applied to sawed stuff when its width exceeds that of a batten, and its thickness does not exceed two inches or two inches and a half. The term plank is applied to large pieces of stuff whose width is great in proportion to their thickness, and whose thickness nevertheless does not exceed three or four inches. In London these terms are used in much more restricted senses than they are here described to mean, because of the fixed and regular sizes and forms in which stuff for the joiner's use is for the most part brought to market there. A batten, to a London joiner, is a fine flooring board from an inch to an inch and a half in thickness, and just seven inches wide. A board is a piece cut from the thickness of a deal whose width is exactly nine inches; and every thing, almost, above that width, and not large enough to be called a scantling of timber, is a plank.

The joiner's work for a house is for the most part prepared at the shop, where every convenience may be supposed to exist for doing every thing in the best and readiest manner; so that little remains to be done when the carcass is ready, but fit, fix, and hang, that is, after the floors are laid. The sashes and frames, the shutters, back flaps, backs, backs and elbows, soffits, grounds, doors, &c. are all framed and put together, that is, wedged up and cleaned off, at the shop; the flooring boards are prepared, that is, faced, shot, and gauged with a fillister rebate; and all the architraves, pilasters, jamb linings, skirtings, mouldings, &c. are all got out, that is, tried up, rebated, and moulded, at the shop.

When the carcass of a building is ready for the joiner, the first thing to be done is to cut the bond timber out of

the openings, set the sash frames, and fill them with old sashes or with oiled paper on frames, to exclude the weather, but admit light. The flooring joists are then proved with straight-edges, and any inequalities in them are removed with the adze; the flooring boards are next cut down to their places, and they are turned with their faces downwards until the ceilings are done; but first the pugging floors, if any are intended, are formed, and the pugged clay is put in on them. Floors are in ordinary cases either straight joint or folding, and are edge or face nailed. Folding floors are those in which three, four, or five boards are laid at a time, with their heading joints all on the same joist, and of course in the same straight line. In laying them, one board being firmly nailed to the joists at the extremity of the floor, another is laid parallel to it at the distance of the width of three or four others, or rather within their width, and these are then forced down and nailed, the forcing having brought all the joints up close. This is a bad mode, however, and should never be used. Straight joint flooring is when every board is laid separately, or one at a time, the heading joint or joints being broken or covered regularly in every case. Straight joint flooring may be with square joints, when it is entirely face nailed, or it may be doweled or tongued, when it is side or edge nailed only. Doweled is the driving pins of wood or iron half their length into the edge of the last laid board, the outer edge of which has been skew-nailed, their other ends running into holes prepared for them in the inner edge of the next board, in the way the head of a cask is held together, and then its outer edge is skew-nailed in the same manner, and so on. Tonguing is effected by grooving both edges of every board, and fitting thin slips and tongues into them, as described in the article JOINERY. The boards are forced together by pressure applied to the outer edge; wedges with iron dogs driven into the joists are commonly used, but they are very objectionable instruments. The nail used in face-nailed floors is called a flooring brad; it has no head, but a mere tongue projecting on one side of the top of the nail, which is put in the direction of the grain, that it may admit of being punched in below the surface level, otherwise the superficial inequalities could not be reduced when the floor was completed, because of the projecting heads of the nails. For side or edge nailing, however, clap-nails, nails whose heads extend across on two of the opposite sides, are used.

Another early operation the joiner has to attend to, is the fixing of the framed door and window and the narrow skirting grounds (see fig. 35) to which the plasterers may float their work. The skirting grounds are generally dovetailed at the angles, and are well blocked out, so that they may not vibrate on being struck, or yield to pressure when the plasterer's straight-edge passes roughly over their surface; they must also be set with the utmost truth and precision. When the floors are cut down and the grounds fixed, the joiner's operations in a building should be suspended until the plasterers have finished, or nearly so, and then the floors may be laid. By deferring this operation until that period, the workmen of the two different trades are prevented from interrupting each other, and indeed injuring each other's work; and joiners always find employment in the shop preparing, as before intimated.

The preparation flooring boards receive, is planing on the face, shooting on the edges, and gauging to a thickness; the common fillister, or stop rebate plane, being used to work down to the gauge mark, from the back of every board, and about half an inch on each edge. When a board is to be laid, it is turned on its face in the place it is to occupy, and the workman with his adze cuts away from the back over every joist down to the gauge rebate,

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In getting out skirtings, if the work be of a superior description, the boards should be tried up as if for framing in every particular except bringing to a width, which need not be done. The face edges, however, must be worked with great precision, and moulded or rebated as the case may require. Rebating or tonguing will be necessary when the skirting consists of more than one piece, that the different pieces may be made to fit neatly and firmly together; and all but the lowest piece must of necessity be brought to a width, as well as tried up in other particulars. A skirting in a single width is called by that term; but when it is made up of more than one part it is designated a base: the lowest board is then called the skirting board, and the upper the base moulding or mouldings. (Fig. 31 and 35.) The reason why the skirting board is not brought to a width is, that the labour would be lost according to the ordinary mode of fixing it. The board is applied to its place with its lower edge touching the floor; but as the most perfectly wrought floor will be likely to have some slight unevenness of surface so close to the wall, a straight-edge would not fit closely down it in every part. The board is therefore propped up at one end or the other until the upper or faced edge is perfectly parallel with the average line of the floor, or rather to be perfectly level. A pair of strong compasses, such as those used by the carpenter, is taken, and opened to the greatest distance the lower edge of the skirting board is from the floor throughout its length; the outer edge, near the point of one leg of the compasses, is then drawn along the floor, whilst the point of the other, being kept vertically above it, is pressed against the face of the board, on which it marks a line exactly parallel to the surface of the floor, indicating, of course, every, even the slightest irregularity there may be in it. If the floor be not a very uneven one, the excluded part may be ripped off with the hand or the panel saw, which may generally be made to follow the traced or inscribed line exactly; if, however, the line be a very irregular one, having quick turns in it, the hatchet must be used. This operation is called *scribing*, and the result of it is evidently to make the skirting fit down on the floor with the utmost precision. Care must be taken, in performing the operation, that the upper edges of the skirtings be not only level, but that all which are in immediate connection be scribed to an equal height, that their upper edges may exactly correspond. Sometimes skirtings are let into a groove in the floor, as indicated in the diagram, fig. 35, and thus a slight degree of shrinking is made of less importance, and scribing rendered unnecessary. Before skirtings are fixed, vertical blocks are put at short intervals, extending from the floor to the narrow grounds, and made exactly flush with and true to the latter, and are firmly nailed. These form a sound backing, to which the skirtings may be bradded or nailed; and so prevent them from warping or bending in any manner. If, however, the skirting be not very wide, and be sufficiently stout to stand without a backing, a fillet only is nailed along the floor as a stop for its lower edge; but this is rendered unnecessary if the skirting be tongued into the floor, as the tongue will answer every purpose of a stop. The ends of skirtings should be tongued into each other when it is necessary to piece them in length; and on returns or an-

gles the end of one should be tongued into the returned face of the other in the square parts, and mitred in the oblique-angled or moulded.

When a chair-rail or surbase is required, grounds similar to those for the base are fixed to range like them with the face of the plastering; the surbase itself must be wide enough to cover the grounds and the joints formed by them and the plastering, completely; it is in effect a cornice to the stereobate and the space intervening it, and the base is generally understood to be wainscotted, though it is more frequently plastered.

In framing or framed work, the outer vertical bars which are mortised are called styles; and the transverse, those on whose ends the tenons are formed, are called rails. (Fig. 32.) In doors, particularly, the open spaces or squares formed internally by the rails and styles are divided in the width by bars parallel to the styles. These are tenoned into the rails, and are called mountings, or, vulgarly, *muntins*. The frame being formed by trying up, setting out, mortising, and tenoning, the inner or face edges of the styles, and of the highest and lowest rails, and both edges of the muntins and of the inner rails, are grooved with the plough to receive the edges and ends of the filling-in parts, or panels of the frame-work. Panels are either flat, raised, or flush. (Fig. 33.) Flat panels are no thicker than the grooves into which they are fitted, and consequently their faces are as much below the surface of the framing as the groove is in from each side of the styles and rails. Raised panels are thicker than the groove in the framing, but are not so thick as to reach the surface; nor is the panel thickened through its whole extent. It fits exactly into the groove, and thickens gradually for an inch or two, and then sets off at a right angle with the surface, increasing suddenly three or four sixteenths of an inch. A panel may be raised on one side only, or on both sides. Flush panels are rebated down from one face to the distance the plough groove is in from the surface of the framing; and the back of a panel thus rebated on one side is worked down to be even with the other edge of the groove, leaving a tongue to fit it exactly; for if it be required to make panels flush on both sides, it is generally effected by filling in on the back or flattened side with an extraneous piece. Framing is not, however, often finished in the manner above described, especially with raised and flush panels; mouldings are generally introduced, and are either struck or worked in the solid substance of the framing, or in separate pieces or slips, and laid in with brads. If a moulding be struck or laid in on one side only, and the other is plain, the framing is described as moulded and square, a flat panel being in that case understood; if the panel be raised the framing will be described as moulded with a raised panel on one side, and square or flush the other. It may be moulded with a flat panel, or moulded with a raised panel, on both sides; and the moulding may, as before intimated, be either struck in the solid, or laid in in any of the preceding cases. Mouldings which are laid in round the panels of framing are neatly mitred at the angles, and bradded, to appear as much as possible as if they were struck in the solid. In nailing or bradding the mouldings, the brads should be driven into the frame-work, and not into the panels. With a flush panel, however, the moulding is always either a bead, or a series of beads called *reed*; and is, in the case of a single bead, which is most common, always struck on the solid frame, and the work is called *bead-flush*; but reeds are generally struck on the panel in the direction of the grain, and laid in on the panel across it, or along the ends; this is termed *reed-flush*. Flush panels in inferior works have a single bead struck on their sides in the direction of the grain alone, the ends abutting plainly, as in the first diagram of a flush panel, and this is

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Building. termed bead-but, the fact that the panels are flush being inferred. The plainest quality of framing, in which it is square on both sides, is used in the fittings of inferior bed-rooms, inner closets, and the plainer domestic offices, but always internally; framing moulded on one or both sides, in rooms and places of a greater degree of importance, and in places where the work may be more generally seen; in some cases a flat panel may be enriched by a small moulding laid on its surface, leaving a margin between it and the larger moulding at its extremities; this may be done in drawing-rooms and apartments of that class, especially if they be in an upper story; and raised panels should be confined to the framed fittings of dining-rooms and other apartments on a ground or principal story. Framing with flush panels is almost restricted to external doors, &c. one side of a door being bead-flush, and the other flat and moulded, perhaps, or the face may be moulded with a raised panel, and the back bead-flush; and this for principal entrances. Bead-but framing is found in external doors to offices, &c. Doors are made four panelled for the most part when the panels are flat and the framing square, six panelled when the latter is moulded, and six, eight, or even ten panelled when the framing is of the superior descriptions. Doors which are hung in two equal widths to occupy the doorway, and are hung to the opposite side posts or jambs of the frame, are said to be double margined; that is, the styles or margins are repeated necessarily in the middle where they meet. Doorways are fitted with jamb linings, and architraves or pilasters. Jamb linings may be framed to correspond with the door on the outer faces; and when they exceed nine or ten inches in width they should always be so, or they may be solid. Narrow and plain jamb linings to inferior rooms are rebated on one side only, and the rebate forms the frame into which the door is fitted. To superior work they are rebated on both sides, as if it were intended to put a door on each side. The jambs are fixed to the inner edges of the grounds; and if they are wide, and not framed, backings are put across to stiffen them; and these backings are dovetailed into the edges of the grounds. Architraves and pilasters are variously sunk and moulded, according to the fancy of the designer. They are fixed to the grounds within their internal edges exactly fitting to the rebates in the jambs, and they form the enriched margin or moulding of the frame in which the door is set. Architraves are jointed at the upper angle, but pilasters have generally a console or an enriched block or cap resting on them, to which they fit with a square joint; both the one and the other either run down and are scribed to the floor, or rest on squared blocks or bases, which may be the height of the skirting board, or of the whole base.

The parts of the outside frame of a sash are distinguished by the terms applied to the similar parts of common framing. The upright sides are styles, and the transverse or horizontal ones, which are tenoned into the ends of the styles, are rails; but the inner frame-work or divisions for the panes are called merely upright and cross bars; the upright being the mortised, and the cross bars the tenoned, nevertheless, as with the outer frame-work. (Fig. 31.) Sashes are got out like common framing; the parts are tried up, set out, mortised and tenoned, exactly in the same manner, allowance being made in the length of the rails and all tenoned pieces, in the setting out, as in common framing also, for the portions of the mortised styles and upright bars, which are worked away in forming the moulding and rebate. The meeting rails of sashes which are in pairs, to be hung with lines, are made thicker than the other parts by the thickness of the parting bead, and they are bevelled or splayed off, the one from above and the other from below, that they may meet and fit closely.

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Building. When the frame-work is completed, although it cannot be put together because of what has just been referred to, the rebate is formed by the sash filister on the further part of the face edge, and the moulding struck on its higher angle. These things being done, the moulded edges are either mitred or scribed at the shoulders and haunches, and the sash may be put together. If sash bars are mitred at the joints they require dowels in the cross bars to act as tenons; but if they can be scribed, dowelling is not required. Sashes are either fixed or hung with hinges, or with lines, pulleys, and weights. Fixed sashes are put into frames, of which every part may be solid but the stop, which must be put in behind the sash to detain it. Sashes hung with hinges require solid rebated frames; but there can be no stops to them except their own movable fastenings, and the outer stop, which of course the rebate furnishes. Sashes hung with lines require cased frames to receive the pulleys and weights. The sill of the frame is made, as in the former cases, solid, is sunk and weathered, and is generally made of a more durable material than the rest of the frame; the sides in the direction of the thickness of the frame are of one and a quarter or one and a half inch board, very truly tried up, and grooved to receive a parting bead; for it must be obvious that sashes hung with lines to run vertically up and down within the height of the frame must be themselves in two heights, and must pass each other in two separate and distinct channels. The ends of these boards are fixed into the upper face of the solid sill below, and into a similar board parallel to the sill which forms a head above, and they are called pulley pieces, or styles, because they receive the pulleys, which are let into them near their upper ends. Linings from four to six inches in width, and from three fourths of an inch to an inch in thickness, are nailed on to the edges of the pulley pieces, and to the sill and head above and below, inside and outside in the direction of the breadth of the sash frame, and are returned along the head in the direction of its length. The outside linings are made to extend within the pulley pieces about half an inch, to form a stop for the upper and outer sash; and the inside linings are made exactly flush with their inner faces. The casing is completed by fixing thin linings on to the outer edges of the outside and inside linings, parallel to the pulley pieces, to prevent any thing from impeding the weights. Thin slips called parting beads are fitted tightly into the grooves previously noticed in the pulley pieces, but they are not fixed, as the upper sash can be put in or taken out only by the temporary removal of the parting bead. An outer or stop bead is mitred round on the inside to complete the groove or channel for the lower sash; the stop bead covers the edge of the inside linings on the sides and head, and is fixed by means of screws, which may be removed without violence when it is required to put in or take out the sashes. A hole covered with a movable piece, large enough to allow the lead or iron weight to pass in and out, is made in each of the pulley pieces, so that the sashes may be hung after the frames are set, and to repair any accident that may occur to the hangings in after-use. (Fig. 34.) It may be here remarked, that sash-frames require greater truth and precision from the workman than any thing else in the joiner's work of a building; and unless the stuff employed be quite sound and perfectly seasoned, all the workman's care in operating will be thrown away. The fittings of a window which has boxed shutters consist of back linings, grounds, back, elbows and soffit, together with shutters and back flaps, and architraves or pilasters round on the inside to form a moulded frame. (Figs. 31 and 34.) Back linings are generally framed with flush panels; they fit in between the inside lining of the sash frame and the framed ground, to both of which they are attached, and

Building form the back of the boxing into which the shutters fall back. They are tongued into the inside lining by their inner edge, and on their outer edge the ground is nailed, and they are set at right angles to the sash-frame, or obliquely outwards, as the shutters may be played or not. The back is the continuation of the window fittings from the sash-sill to the floor on the inside; the elbows are its returns on either side under the shutters, and the soffit is the piece of framing which extends from one side of the window to the other, across the head, the width or extent of the shutters. These are all framed to correspond with the shutters on the face; but, as they are fixed, their backs are left unwrought. Window shutters are framed in correspondence with the door and other framed work of the room to which they belong, in front, and generally with a flush panel behind: the back flaps are in one or two separate breadths to each shutter, according to the width of the window and the depth of the recess; they are made lighter than the shutters themselves; and they should, when shut to, present faces exactly corresponding with those of the shutters, both internally and externally. The shutters are hung to the sash-frame with butt hinges, and the back flaps are hung to their outer styles with a hinge called a back flap, from its use. The shutters and their back flaps are hung in one, two, or more heights, as may be found convenient. The moulded margin round the boxings of a window on the inner face are made to harmonize generally with the similar parts of the doors of the room or place to which it belongs. The fixing and hanging of window fittings or dressings are hardly less important, for the accuracy required, than the making and fixing of the sash-frame itself; the slightest infirmity or inaccuracy in any part will be likely to derange some important operation. Sashes, it may be remarked, are never fitted until the frames are immovably fixed, so that if there be any inaccuracy in the latter, the sashes are cut away or pieced out to make them fit; but, as they are intended to traverse, the fitting in that case can only apply to one particular position, and in every one but that there must be something wrong. Any incorrectness in the sash-frame, again, must throw the shutters and their back flaps out; indeed the sash-frame, though apparently a secondary part of the arrangement, is that which affects all the rest beyond anything else. When sashes have been fitted, a plough groove, wide and deep enough to receive the sash-line, is made in the outer edges of the styles, for about two thirds of their length, at their upper ends. They are then primed and glazed, and when the putty is sufficiently set the joiner hangs them. He is furnished with sash-line, tacks, and iron or lead weights, which are generally made cylindrical, with a ring at one end, to which the line may be attached. A sash is weighed, and two weights are selected which together amount to within a few ounces of the same gravity. The line is then passed through the pulley, which was previously fixed in the pulley stile; the end is knotted to a weight which is passed in at the hole left for the purpose, and at a sufficient distance, which a common degree of intelligence will readily determine, the line is cut off and the end tacked into the groove in the stile of the sash.

Glue is used principally in putting framed work together, but not at all in fixing; and even for the former purpose it is much less used by good workmen than by inferior ones. When the stuff is well seasoned, and the trying up, setting out, mortising, and tenoning, are well and accurately executed, there is no necessity for glue on the tenons and shoulders; the wedges alone need be glued, to attach them to the sides of the tenons, that their effect may not depend on mere compression. Joiners are generally furnished with a cramp, with which to force the joints of framing into close contact; it is either of wood

acting by means of wedges, or of iron with a screw. This, **Building** too, is unnecessary with good work, every joint of which may be brought perfectly close without great violence of any kind. The cramp will sometimes give bad work the semblance of good, but it cannot make it really so. If any cracking and starting be heard in the joiner's work of a new building, it generally indicates one of two things: either the cramp has been required in putting the framing together, or, having been put together, it has been forced out of winding in fixing, and the constrained fibres are seeking to regain their natural position. A good workman does not require a cramp, nor will his work, if he has been supplied with seasoned stuff, ever require to be strained; and consequently the cracking and starting of joiner's work indicates unfit stuff or bad work, or perhaps both. It is true that glued joints will sometimes fly; but when they do, there need be no hesitation in determining the presence of both bad work, and stuff in an improper state.

Floors are measured and valued by the square of a hundred superficial feet; but any thing beyond the mere flooring, such as the mitred borders generally put as a margin to the stone slab of a fire-place, is taken extra by the foot superficial, or running, as the additional work may be above or below three inches in width. The first important thing to note in measuring a floor is the thickness of the boards, by which to determine the cost of the principal material. A floor of boards unplanned on the face, and shot on the edges, laid folding, is the roughest that can be supposed; with the boards wrought or planed on the face, and laid in the same manner, will be the next in advance; and straight joint flooring, in all its varieties, is the most troublesome, and consequently the most expensive in common and general use. Whether the boards be wide or narrow is a consideration to be noted, an equal surface being of course more rapidly covered with wide than with narrow boards; whether they be gauged, and if brought to a thickness throughout, or only rebate gauged, and cut down on the joints with the adze; in what manner the heading joints are formed and secured; how the longitudinal joints are executed, whether square, ploughed and tongued, or doweled; and whether the boards are face or edge nailed. Solid frames, as for outside doors, &c. are measured and valued by the cubic foot, labour being calculated upon the stuff according to the nature and extent of what may have been applied to it.

With trifling and unimportant exceptions, every thing else in joiner's work that exceeds three inches in width is taken by the superficial foot; and the dimensions are taken on the finished and fixed work, so that allowances must be made for whatever waste may have been of necessity made. The stuff worked up by the joiner is always supposed to have been in planks and boards a certain number of quarters of an inch in thickness, so that whatever the finished work may stand, it is taken as of the thickness which in quarters of an inch it is next below; thus, if the styles of a door stand at even less than an inch and seven eighths, it is taken as a two-inch door; for a piece of framing is always considered to be of the thickness of its outer frame-work, the description determining the substance of the panels. Framed grounds are measured round on the outside for the length; their width is not that of the frame, but of the styles and head as they actually are; and their thickness that of the stuff before it was planed at all. Narrow grounds are taken by the foot running, their width being noted in the description of them. Jamb linings are measured to the full length they may be of by their width, the thickness being noted, together with a description of the work on them,—if they are single or double rebated, if framed, and in what manner, &c.

Building. The dimensions of a door are generally taken within the rebates in which it is to hang, with its thickness and description noted,—as of four, six, or eight panels, moulded on one or both sides, with flat or raised panels, &c.; if it be double margined, that is stated, and the amount of the lap or rebate in their meeting styles is added to the width, to increase the superficies by so much. The hinges with which a door is hung, and the lock or other fastenings which may be on it, are taken, with a description of their sizes and qualities, immediately after the door itself. If sashes are in a solid frame they are taken alone, but sashes in cased frames are measured in and with the frames. To the clear height between the sill and the head, three inches are added for the thickness of the sill, and four inches for the depth of the case at the head, for the height; and to the width between the pulley-styles is added eight, nine, or ten inches, as the case may be, for the breadth of the casing on each side, for the width; these give the superficies of the sashes and frame. The sashes and frame are described, with the thickness of the former, which determines that of the latter; the sill is described as sunk or merely weathered; the pulley-styles as of such a thickness; the pulleys, line, and stuff employed in the different parts of the frame as of such and such qualities and sorts; and whether the sashes be single or double hung, with what fastenings, &c. The boxings for the shutters are taken in a superficial quantity, as square or played, if circular on plan, whether with a flat or quick sweep, or if circular headed, and straight on plan. The back linings, the backs, elbows, and soffits, the shutters and the back flaps, are all measured by the superficial foot, according to their thicknesses and descriptions, the hinges and fastenings of the shutters and back flaps being numbered and noted independently of them. The capping to backs is taken by the running foot; and elbow cappings are numbered. Moulded architraves are taken superficially, the length by their girt, or by the run at such a girt. Skirtings are measured superficially at such a thickness, as scribed or tongued, as square or moulded, or rebated for base moulding, as the case may be. Base and surbase, and indeed all other moulding which girds at four inches and above, should be taken superficially; and mouldings which are of less girt may be taken by the run if they be taken independently of the other work, or that to which they belong, at all. A moulding projecting from the face of the work to which it belongs may be assumed as independent of it; whereas a receding one, if it be small, will merely add the character of moulded to the work, and if large will qualify all in immediate connection with it to be taken as a superficial quantity of moulding. All circular work, or work which diverges from a straight line, is noted and charged proportionally to the additional labour and waste of stuff involved; the shorter the radius of the arc, or quicker the sweep, the higher must be the proportioned charge. Things which have been bent to their flected form are less costly in proportion than those which must have been worked in the solid or glued up in thicknesses.

Stairs are measured by the superficial foot, the length of one step being taken by the breadth of a step and riser, increased by once the thickness of the former for a quantity, and this multiplied by the number of steps there may be of the same kind; that is, when the steps are flyers; for in winding steps the treads and risers are taken in separate dimensions, for greater accuracy. The thicknesses of the steps and risers are noted, as well as the mode in which they are worked; they have either rounded or moulded nosings, are housed into the string, or have returned nosings, the riser being mitred to the string or to cut brackets on the ends of the steps. Curtain ends to steps are numbered.

Building. The frame-work or bearers on which the stairs rest is included with the stairs themselves. String-boards are taken according to their thickness and the quantity of work on them; the grooves or housings in them are numbered. The capping on a close string is taken by the run; but when the nosings of the steps are returned, the strings are said to be cut; and if there are any cut and mitred blocks, they are numbered. Stair skirting is taken as raking and scribed, and as straight, circular, ramped, or wreathed, by the foot superficial; wooden balusters are taken by the run, and the mortises or dovetails in which they are set are numbered; newels are taken by the run for the stuff and the fixing, and the turnings on them are numbered. Hand-rails are said to be merely rounded, or moulded; they are measured by the running foot; and a distinction is kept up between the straight, the circular, the ramps, the wreaths, and the scroll; nuts and screws in their joints are numbered.

All sorts of framing, whether it be fixed or hung—all linings above three inches in width—all sorts of ledged work, such as plain doors and shutters, partitions in lofts and stables, bracketing, cradling, &c.—must be measured superficially. All narrow linings, very narrow skirtings, staff beads, fillets, water trunks and spouts, legs, rails, and runners to dressers, groovings, flutings, recesses, cappings, &c. and any work on superficial quantities that does not pervade the whole, but is in itself peculiar, should be taken lineally, or by the running foot. Insulated parts, such as short, interrupted grooves, blocks, pateras, brackets, trusses, cantilevers, holes, mortises for articles taken lineally, mitres to cornices, heads and feet to flutes and reeds, &c. are numbered and charged at so much a piece. Ironmongery goods employed by the joiner are numbered under their different heads, and charged as fixed; that is, to the price of a lock is added a charge for the labour employed in fitting and fixing it, and whatever accessories it may have required which are not included in its own cost, such as screws, &c. to a rim or dead lock. To the price of hinges, however, only the cost of screws should be added, as the fixing of them is usually included in hanging the work to which they are attached.

The cost at which joiners' work can be executed can only be determined by calculation and observation. The cost of the materials employed may be readily determined by dissecting a piece of work and reckoning its contents; but the labour depends on so many contingencies, that very accurate observation indeed is necessary to determine the quantity that may have been required to produce a certain result. In carpenters' work, the material forms the principal part of the charge; but in joiners' work the materials are for the most part of far less importance than the labour which has been expended on them. The stuff employed in a sash must be costly indeed to amount to as much as the labour of making the sash; whereas, in most doors, under ordinary circumstances, the materials may cost as much as the labour.

Sawyer.—The labour of the sawyer is applied to the division of large pieces of timber or logs into forms and sizes to suit the purposes of the carpenter and joiner. His working place is called a saw-pit, and his almost only important tool a pit-saw. A cross-cut saw, axes, dogs, files, compasses, lines, lamp-black, black-lead, chalk, and a rule, are all accessories which may be considered necessary to him.

Unlike most other artificers, the sawyer can do absolutely nothing alone: sawyers are therefore always in pairs; one of the two stands on the work, and the other in the pit under it. The log or piece of timber being carefully and firmly fixed on the pit, and lined for the cuts which are to be made in it, the top-man standing on it,

Building. and the pit-man below or off from its end, a cut is commenced, the former holding the saw with his two hands by the handle above, and the other in the same manner by the box handle below. The attention of the top-man is directed to keeping the saw in the direction of and out of winding with the line to be cut upon, and that of the pit-man to cut down in a truly vertical line. The saw being correctly entered, very little more is required than steadiness of hand and eye in keeping it correctly on throughout the whole length. It is the custom to project so much of the log over the first transverse bearer as can be done without rendering it liable to vibrate or be insecure; and when all the cuts proposed are advanced up to that bearer, the end is slightly raised to allow the bearer to be passed out beyond the termination of the advanced cuts. The advantage of, or rather the necessity for, the movable handle at the lower end of the saw is now evident, the top-man removing the saw readily from cut to cut from above, his mate having merely to strike the wedge in the box one way or the other, to fix or loosen it.

It is absolutely necessary that the top-man should stand in such a manner on the log or piece operated on, that a line down the centre of his body shall fall exactly upon the line of the cut he is to work on, and be as exactly perpendicular to it and to the plane of the horizon. He must, therefore, when the cut is near the outer edge, be provided with a board or plank, one end of which may rest on something firm at a short distance from the log, and the other on or against it, to put the outer foot on, and so keep himself in such a position that he may always, and without constraint, see his saw out of winding, and so that a spectator standing on the fore end of the pit may see the saw an imaginary line passing down the centre of the workman's body, and the line of the cut in exactly the same vertical plane. The labour of the top-sawyer should consist solely in lifting the saw up by the handle as high as his arms can carry it, and that of the pit-man in drawing it down with a slight pressure or tendency onward, sufficient to make it bite into the timber as much as his strength will enable him to make it cut away. The only assistance the pit-man should give in lifting the saw is in holding it back that the teeth may not drag against the cut in the ascent; and all the top-man should do in cutting downward is to keep the teeth steadily and firmly in contact with the part to be eroded. Good workmen may work with a narrower or closer set to their saw than bad ones can, though the wider or more open set saw is more liable to make bad work. It works more slowly and consumes more stuff than the close set; but it is not so likely to hang in the cut with the unnecessary pushing up of the pit-man and jerking down of the other, as if it were set more closely. A good top-man, nevertheless, is of much more importance, though he be badly mated, than the converse.

Indeed the best possible pit-man could not work satisfactorily with a bad top-man, and therefore the latter is always considered the superior workman, and on him devolves the care of sharpening and setting the saw, &c. In the operations of the carpenter and joiner much depends on the manner in which the sawyers have performed their part. The best work on the part of the carpenter cannot retrieve the radical defects in his materials from bad sawing; and although the joiner need not allow his work to suffer, bad sawing causes him great loss of stuff and immense additional and otherwise unnecessary labour. Planks or boards, and scantlings, on coming from the sawpit, should be as straight and true in every particular, except mere smoothness of surface, as if they had been tried up on the joiner's bench; and good workmen actually produce them so. Saw-mills, too, by the truth and beauty with which they operate, show the Sawyer what may be

Building. effected; for though he can hardly hope to equal their effect, he may seek to approach it.

Sawyers' work is valued at so much the hundred superficial feet: the sawing on a board or squared scantling being once its length, by a side and an edge, or half the amount of its four sides. In squared timber, however, it is generally valued at so much per load of fifty cubic feet, four cuts to the load, any cuts exceeding that number being paid for at so much per hundred feet; in this case the length of the cut by its depth gives the superficial quantity of sawing in. Pieces again of determined and equal length and breadth, such as the deals and planks commonly used for joiners' work in this country, admitting of a regulated scale, the sawing that may be required in them is valued at so much the dozen cuts.

Modeller.—The modeller copies, in a solid material, the drawings of designs which may have been prepared for enrichments, in whatever material they are to be cast, whether in plaster, in metals, or in composition of any kind, for the plaster, smith, or decorator. The model is made in a finely tempered and plastic clay, or in wax; and the modeller works with his fingers, assisted by a few ivory or bone tools for finishing off neatly and sharply, and for working in parts which he cannot reach with his fingers. He is generally the best workman who can do most towards producing the required forms with his fingers unassisted by artificial tools, as a greater degree of ease and freedom almost always results from the use of the hands alone. The model being completed, it is moulded, that is, moulds are made fitting it exactly in every part, and fitting exactly to each other at the edges, and in these, casts are made to any extent that may be required.

The modeller having some pretensions to be considered an artist rather than a mere artificer, he is for the most part paid according to his merits as such, rather than for so much time, according to the ordinary mode of determining the value of artificers' works.

Carver and Gilder.—The carver is strictly an independent artist, whose business it is to cut ornaments and enrichments in solid and durable material, such as wood and stone, so that, like the modeller, he must be paid according to the taste and power he may exhibit in his works, rather than as a common artificer. Carving has, however, been in a great measure superseded by modelling and casting, so that the carver is hardly known in economic building except in connection with the gilder. Gilding may indeed be applied to castings as well as to carvings; but the former being, almost as a matter of course, less sharp and spirited in their flexures and details, as well as less firm in substance than the latter, castings can less bear to be further subdued by the application of foreign matters to their surfaces than carvings may.

Gilding is the application of gold leaf to surfaces, which require, however, to be previously prepared for its reception. The work is first primed with a solution of boiled linseed oil and carbonate of lead, and then covered with a fine glutinous composition called gold size, on which, when it is nearly dry, the gold leaf is laid in narrow slips with a fine brush, and pressed down with a piece of cotton wool held in the fingers. As the slips must be made to overlap each other slightly, to insure the complete covering of the whole surface, the loose edges will remain unattached: these are readily struck off with a large sable or camel-hair brush, fitted for the purpose; and the joints, if the work be dexterously executed, will be invisible. This is called oil gilding, and it is by far the best fitted for the enrichment of surfaces in architecture, because it is durable, and is easily cleaned, and does not destroy or derange the forms under it so much as burnished gilding does. This latter requires the work to be covered with

Building. various laminæ of gluten, plaster, and bole, which last is mixed with gold size, to procure the adhesion of the leaf. The most durable mode of gilding metals in common use is by amalgamation.

The surfaces generally operated on by the gilder are so diverse, that the real value of his work can be determined satisfactorily only by taking his time and the materials employed and consumed in executing a piece of work.

Plumber.—Lead, as the name imports, is the material in and with which the plumber operates. The previous preparation, casting and milling of lead into sheets, pipes, &c. and the composition and uses of solder, will be found described under the head **PLUMBERY**.

The principal operations of the plumber are directed to the covering of roofs and flats, laying gutters, covering hips, ridges, and valleys, fixing water trunks, making cisterns and reservoirs, and laying on the requisite pipes and cocks to them, fixing water-closet apparatus, setting up pumps, and applying indeed all the hydraulic machinery required in economic building. His tools are knives, chisels, and gouges for cutting and trimming, rasps or files and planes for fitting and jointing, a dressing and flattening tool for the purposes its name expresses, iron hammers and wooden mallets for driving and fixing, ladles in which to melt solder, grozing irons to assist in soldering, a hand-grate or stove which may be conveniently moved from place to place, for melting solder and heating the grozing irons, a stock and bit for boring holes, and a rule, compasses, lines and chalk for setting out and marking, together with weighing apparatus, as the quantities of most of the materials used by the plumber must be either proved or determined by weight. A plumber is always attended by a labourer, who does the more laborious work of carrying the materials from place to place, helps to move them when they are under operation, melts the solder and heats the grozing irons, attends to hold the one or the other, as neither may be set down or put out of hand when in use, and assists in some of the minor and coarser operations. In boarding roofs, flats, and gutters for lead, clasp-nails or flooring brads should be used; and the first care of the plumber should be to punch them all in from an eighth to a quarter of an inch below the surface, and stop the holes carefully and completely with putty, or a chemical process will ensue on the slightest access of moisture if the iron heads of the nails come in contact with the lead, and the latter will, in the course of no long period, be completely perforated over every one of them. Neither should lead in surfaces of any extent be soldered, or in any manner fastened at the edges, without being turned up so as to make sufficient allowance for the expansion and contraction which it is constantly undergoing during the various changes in the temperature of the atmosphere. It may be taken, indeed, as a general rule, that solder should be dispensed with as much as possible. Like glue to the joiner, it is indispensable in many cases; but like glue also, it is in common practice made to cover many defects, and much bad work, that ought not to exist.

Sheet lead, whether cast or milled, is supplied of various weight or thickness; and it is always described as of such a weight in pounds to the superficial foot. This varies from four to ten or twelve, so that the weight to the foot being ascertained, the whole weight of any quantity of the same thickness may be determined by admeasurement. There are very few purposes, indeed, in building, in which lead of less than six pounds to the foot should be used, and very few in which the weight need to exceed ten. For roofs, flats, and gutters, under ordinary circumstances, eight-pounds lead is a very fair and sufficient average; for hips and ridges, lead of six pounds to the foot is thick enough; and for flashings five-

pound lead need not be objected to. Cast lead is to be preferred for the former purposes, because its surface is harder, and it is somewhat less susceptible of meteoric vicissitudes than milled; but the latter bends better, and, presenting a neater appearance, may be preferred for hips, ridges, flushings, &c. As the sheets are generally made of limited length and breadth, the cast being about sixteen or eighteen feet, and the milled from the latter dimension to twenty-five feet in length, and the one and the other seldom exceeding six feet wide, to avoid soldering, the lateral joints are made on rolls, and longitudinally in falls or drips. A roll is a piece of wood made about two inches thick and two or three inches wide, rounded on one edge, and fixed with that edge uppermost, so as to come a few inches within the width of a sheet of lead, that the edges may be turned up and folded round and over it, being lapped by, or lapping the similar edge of the adjoining sheet, (Fig. 37.) Lead sufficiently stout, dressed neatly and closely down to the boards under it, and over the rolls at its edges, will require no fastening of any kind, unless it lie on a very inclined plane, and have no stop below. Rolls occur for the most part in roofs and flats, and drips principally in gutters. The drip is formed in the first instance by the carpenter in laying the gutter boards according to an arrangement with the plumber. It is a difference made in the height of the gutter of about three inches, where one sheet terminates in length, and meets another in continuation. The end of the lower is turned up against the drip, and that of the upper is dressed down over it, so as effectually to prevent water from driving under it. Gutters should have a current of at least a quarter of an inch to the foot, and in flats it should not be much less; ends and sides which are against a wall should turn up against it from five to seven inches, according to the circumstances; and the turning up under the slates, tiles, or other roof covering, to a gutter, should be to the level of that against the wall at the least. The turning up against the wall should be covered by a flashing. This is a piece of lead let into one of the joints of the wall above the edge of the gutter lead, and dressed neatly down over, to prevent water from getting in behind it. (Fig. 36.) Lead on ridges and hips not being in sufficient masses to be secured by its own weight, must be secured by nails.

In making cisterns and reservoirs, unless they be cast, the sheets of lead must of necessity be joined by soldering; but the water they are intended to contain protects the lead from the frequent and sudden changes it is in the other more exposed situations subjected to.

Water trunks and pipes are made of a certain number of pounds weight to the yard in length, to every variety of bore or calibre that can be required. Water trunks or pipes are fitted with large case heads above, to receive the water from the gutter spouts, and with shoes to deliver the water below; they are fixed or attached to the walls of buildings with flanches of lead, which are secured by means of spike nails. Service and waste pipes to cisterns, &c. are generally supported and attached by means of iron holdfasts.

Plumbers' work is for the most part estimated by the hundredweight of a hundred and twelve pounds, though there are of course many things which must be taken in detail, by the pound weight, by number, and even by size. It has been already shown in what manner the quantity of lead consumed may be determined, whether it be in sheets or in pipes; the weight per superficial foot of the one, and per lineal foot or yard of the other, being known, and it is always ascertainable, the dimensions of the various parts or portions of the work readily give the total amount in hundredweights or tons. The waste of lead

Building.

Building. in working is very trifling, as cuttings all go to the melting pot again with little or no loss but that of refounding or casting; and even old lead is taken by the lead merchant in exchange for new, at a very trifling allowance for tare and the cost of re-working. Water closet apparatus, pumps, cocks, hoses, fenders, washers, valves, balls, gratings, traps, funnels, &c. can all readily be counted and noted according to their sizes and peculiarities; and so may the various requisite joints in pipes, and attachments of cocks, &c. to the pipes, which must also be taken in addition to the articles themselves. The prices of all these goods, from the sheets of lead and the pipes, to the smallest articles used by the plumber, may be ascertained from the wholesale merchants and manufacturers; an addition of thirty per cent. to these prime costs will, under ordinary circumstances, afford the builder or tradesman an ample profit, and payment, with sufficient profit on them also, for labour, solder, and nails, excepting cost of carriage, and any other contingent expense, which must be added to the gross. The materials may, however, be taken with a recognized profit added to the prime costs and the actual labour expended; and solder and nails worked up may be reckoned from observation, or account kept of the workmen's time, &c.

These things are mentioned more particularly, because a nefarious custom has obtained in this country, and is still allowed to a very great extent, by which the plumber is permitted to take not only an extortionate profit on his goods, but actually to charge twice for labour and the accessories. There is nothing more common than to find in a plumber's account a charge for lead (meaning sheet-lead) and labour, at so much per hundredweight,—charges for pipe of a certain bore or diameter at so much per foot,—for so many joints in pipe of such a size,—that is, for the labour and solder consumed and expended in making them,—and so on through all sorts of things, the account winding up at length, or being interspersed from time to time, with so many pounds or hundredweights of solder, and so many days' work of plumber and labourer! The now prevalent custom of artificers' work being done by general builders by tender and contract, has considerably lessened the injury to the public from this abuse, and proved it to be really so by the moderate profits the same men will content themselves with if they make a tender, who would persist in charging at the old rate if they were instructed to do the work without being bound by a contract. Such too is the effect of custom on the courts of justice in England, that the abuse referred to has been protected by them, and probably would be so still, because it was the custom and had been allowed!

Smith and Founder.—The goods supplied by the smith are charged by the pound according to the quantity of labour on them, and the founder has generally an average charge for iron castings at so much per hundredweight or per ton. The working up or fitting and fixing of iron-work devolves for the most part on the carpenter in whose favour it is taken, generally however, in combination with some of his own peculiar works.

Glazier.—The business of the glazier may be confined to the mere fitting and setting of glass; even the cutting of the plates up into squares being generally an independent art, requiring a degree of tact and judgment not necessarily possessed by the building artificer. (See the articles GLASS, Manufacture of, and GLASS-CUTTING.) The glazier is supplied with a diamond cutting tool, laths or straight-edges of various lengths, a square, a glazing-knife, a hacking-knife, hammer, duster, sash-tool, and rule; and his materials are simply glass, putty, and priming or paint.

The glass is supplied by the glass-cutter in squares or panes, of the sizes and qualities required for the parti-

cular work to be executed. The putty is made by the glazier himself or by a labourer, of fine clean powdered chalk or whiting, and linseed oil, well mixed and combined, and kneaded to the consistence of dough. No more putty should be made at once than is likely to be worked up in the course of a day, as the oil drying out, it becomes hard and partially set, and is therefore less available for its purposes. Priming is a thin solution of white, with a little red, lead in linseed oil. When the sashes come to the glazier from the joiner, they have been fitted into their places, and only require to be glazed before they may be permanently set or hung. Supposing that no preliminary process is required, such as stopping (the result of bad joiner's work) and knotting (and knotty stuff should not be admitted in sashes), the sashes require to be primed. The priming is laid on every part of the sash except the outer edges of the styles and of the bottom and top rails, with the sash tool or painting brush, that is, if the sashes are intended to be painted; for if not, the rebates only must be primed. The object of this is to prepare the material of which the sash is composed for the reception of the putty, which would not otherwise attach itself so readily as it does after this preparation. The priming being sufficiently dry, the workman cuts the panes of glass down into their places, making every one fall readily into the rebates without binding in any part; indeed the glass should fit so nicely as not to touch the wood with its edges any where, and yet hardly allow a fine point to pass between it and the sash-bar or rebate, the object being to encase it completely in putty, and yet that the putty should not be in greater quantity than is absolutely necessary. The glass being fitted or cut down, the workman takes the glazing-knife in his right hand, and a lump of putty in the palm of his left, the sash being laid on its face, that is, with the rebates upward, before him; with the knife he lays a complete bedding of putty on the returning narrow stops of the rebates, all round to every pane. This being done, the panes of glass are put in on it as they have been fitted, and every one is carefully rubbed down with the fingers, forcing the putty out below and around the edges of the glass, until they are nearly brought into contact with the wood or other material of the sash. The rebates are then filled in with putty behind, the mass forming exactly a right-angled triangle, its base being the extent of the stop of the rebate, and its perpendicular the depth from the glass to the outer edge of the rebate; the third side or hypotenuse is neatly smoothed off, and the sash being then turned on its edge and held uprightly by the left hand, the protruded putty of the bedding is struck off with the knife, and the section of it neatly drawn. The sashes are now deposited on their faces, to allow the putty to set, and then they may be hung and painted. To very large squares, and to plate-glass, small tacks or spuds are used; but it is much better to do without them if prudence will permit it.

Lead-work, as it is termed, is the glazing of frames rather than of sashes with small squares or quarries of glass, which are held together by reticulations of lead; and these are secured to stout metal bars, which are fixed to the window frames. The lenden reticulating bars are grooved on their edges to receive the quarries, and are tied by means of lenden ribbands or wires to the saddle bars, which, in their turn, are affixed to the stouter bars before mentioned, if the bay or frame be so large as to require both.

Glazing is valued by the superficial foot, the squares or panes being measured between the rebates in which they are set. The value of plate-glass is very much affected by the sizes of the panes, every additional inch in extent of surface adding materially to the cost of production of the whole piece or plate; it must therefore be carefully

Building. noted according to its magnitude. Common window glass is divided into best, seconds, and thirds, and is charged higher as the panes increase in size, because for large panes the table cuts to waste more than in cutting small ones. In ordinary practice, panes containing two superficial feet and under are clasped together; then from two feet to two feet six inches, and so on; and according to the quality of the article. Flattening, bending, grinding, staining, &c. are all subjects of separate and independent charge.

Lead lights are taken by the superficies generally of a hundred feet, lead and glass being included in the same charge, which, however, depends on the size of the quarries. Stay and saddle bars are taken separately, according to their number and magnitude.

Painter.—The processes of economical painting will be found described in an article under the head PAINTING. The real object of painting is to protect wood, metals, and stuccoes from being readily acted upon by the atmosphere, by covering their surfaces with a material which is capable of resisting it. A continued succession of moisture and dryness, and of heat and cold, soon effects the decomposition of woods, causes oxidation in most of the metals used for economical purposes, and destroys the generality of stuccoes if their surfaces be exposed nakedly to it. A solution of ceruse or white lead in linseed oil spread over them prevents these injuries in a great measure, and for a considerable period of time; and as the application of such an unction can be repeated without much trouble or expense as often as occasion may require, it may be said to furnish a protection against the cited contingencies. In addition to the utility of painting, it is also available as an ornament, by bringing disagreeable or diversely coloured surfaces to a pleasing and uniform tint, or by diversifying a disagreeable monotony of tint, to suit the taste and fancy; and this is done in a great measure by the addition of various pigments to the solution before mentioned.

The painter works with hog's bristle brushes of various sizes, which, with the exception of pots to hold his colours, a grinding stone and grinder or muller for grinding or triturating them, a pallet and a pallet knife, are almost his only implements. His materials are comparatively few also; but for some purposes these require a great variety of ingredients, the preparation and combination of which, however, devolves principally on the manufacturer or colour-man, and not on the painter himself.

The first thing the workman has to attend to in painting wood-work, is to prepare its surface for the reception of paint, by counteracting the effect of any thing that may tend to prevent it from becoming identified with the material. Thus, in painting pine woods of any kind, the resin contained in the knots which appear on the surface must be neutralized, or a blemish will appear in the finished work over every resinous part. Inequalities or unevennesses of surface, too, must be reduced with sand-paper or pumice-stone, or made up with putty. The necessary process for killing knots, just referred to, will generally leave a film, which must be rubbed down; and the heads of nails and brads having been punched in, will present indentations, which should be stopped. In painting or laying on the colour, the brush must be constantly at right angles to the face of the work, only the ends of the hairs, in fact, touching it, for in this manner the paint is at the same time forced into the pores of the wood and distributed equally over the surface; for if the brush be held obliquely to the work, it will leave the paint in thick masses wherever it is first applied after being dipped for

a fresh supply into the pot, and the surface will be daubed but not painted. Painting, when properly executed, will not present a shining, smooth, and glossy appearance, as if it formed a film or skin, but will show a fine and regular grain, as if the surface were natural, or had received a mere stain without destroying the original texture. Imitative grainings, however, and the varnishes which are intended to protect them, and make them bear out, necessarily produce a new and artificial texture; and for this reason they are all to a greater or less extent disagreeable, how well soever the imitations may be effected.

As it must be presumed that all the wood submitted to the operations of the painter, which has passed through the hands of the joiner, was already well seasoned and properly dry, it is only necessary to say generally, that work should be free from moisture of any and every kind before paint is applied to it, or it will at the least prove useless, and probably injurious rather than beneficial. This remark applies alike to wood and to plastered work, both internal and external; that is, whether they be subjected to the more violent changes of the weather or not. Dampness or moisture in woods, and stopped in or covered up with paint, will, under ordinary circumstances, tend to their destruction; and in stuccoes it will spoil the paint, and most probably injure the plastering itself too.

Painters' work, on extended surfaces, is valued by the yard superficial, according to the number of coats, or the number of times the paint has been applied to the surface, and to the manner in which, and matter with which, it is finished. On skirtings, surbuses, narrow cornices, reveals, single mouldings, sills, string courses, &c. it is measured by the foot run; sash-frames and the squares or panes of sashes are numbered, the latter by the dozen; and so are other things which do not readily admit of being measured. Rich cornices, expensive imitations, &c. are taken by the foot superficial; and preparations before the work can be commenced are most fairly charged for by the time they occupy and the materials they consume. The work is taken as one, two, three, four, or more times in oil, common colour; or so many times finished of a certain colour that is more expensive than what is called common; or as so many times, and flatted of such a colour, the flating being an extra coat; or as painted so many times, and grained and varnished. Common colours are those which are produced by the addition of lamp-black, red-lead, or any of the common ochres to white-lead and oil; blues, greens, rich reds, pinks, and yellows, &c. being more costly, are taken as such. Unflatted white is a common colour; flatted, it classes with the rich colours. If the same surface be painted of two different tints, it is said to be in party colours, and an allowance is made in the price for the additional trouble of finishing in that manner. Carved mouldings and other enrichments having to be picked in with a pencil or small brush, that the quirk, &c. be not choked up, must be taken extra, by the run or by number; and if the picking in be in party colours, the labour is necessarily greater than if the work be plain.

What is termed decorating, is divided between the painter and the paper-hanger. Decorations must necessarily depend upon the taste and skill required or employed in producing them; and the remuneration must also of course be contingent. Decorative papers are paid for by the piece or yard, a piece being made in this country twelve yards long and twenty inches wide, and the hanging is charged at so much the piece. Borders are charged by the yard for the material, and by the dozen for hanging. Sizing and otherwise preparing the walls are considered extra to the charges for hanging. (H. H.)

Building.

Built
in
Bukharia

BUILTII, or **BUALTI**, a market-town in the county of Brecknock, in South Wales, 177 miles from London. It has little trade, and only a small market on Saturday. The inhabitants amounted in 1801 to 677, in 1811 to 815, and in 1821 to 946.

BUKHARIA, **BUKHARA**, or **BOCKHARA**, an extensive region of Asia, in Ubeck or Independent Tartary. We have no data to define the exact limits of this country, which vary in extent, as in most Asiatic states, according to its power. The habitable part of the country is small in proportion to the desert by which it is mostly surrounded, and which may be considered as in a great measure its boundary. It is divided in this manner from Khlyvah or Khaurzem on the west and north-west; to the north and north-west stretch vast tracts of desert, thinly sprinkled with the tents of the Toorkoman and other barbarous tribes, and only interrupted by the Jaxartes or Sihon; upon the east it is bounded by Kokaun or Ferghana, and Hissar; and the Oxus, with the mountains from which it flows, may be said to form a rude boundary to the south. The country extends, according to the best estimate that can be obtained, about seven hundred miles from north to south, and three hundred and fifty from east to west. But we are greatly in want of accurate information concerning its extent, and, according to the different theories of geographers, large districts are either withdrawn from or annexed to it. We know but little of the nature of the country, further than that a great part of it is a flat and sandy desert, though it contains large tracts which are fertile and well cultivated. It is watered by the Sihon or Jaxartes on the north, and by the Amu or Oxus on the south; and there is a vague report that a lake called Taran lies in the central districts. The country near the city of Bukharia is described as in a high state of cultivation, and thickly studded with well-inhabited villages for forty miles around. Beyond the circle of cultivation commences an arid desert, which surrounds on every side the fertile spot in which Bukharia is situated. Towards the south-east, as the country approaches the great Himalaya range, and the sources of the two great rivers between which it lies, it is rugged and mountainous. Fraser, who during his residence in Persia collected the most satisfactory and recent information which we possess respecting Bukharia, mentions that in this quarter there is a mountain abounding in gold, which being washed down by the torrents, is intercepted along with the sand by means of sheep-skins placed in the water; the metal is extracted by amalgamation with quicksilver, which is evaporated by heat, leaving the gold in a pure state. Silver is also found, but in what manner is not known. Many other valuable products are enumerated, among which are rubies, lapis lazuli, and marble. About a hundred and fifty miles due east from the city of Bukharia lies the celebrated city of Samarcand, now presenting a heap of ruins. The first two days' journey is, for about sixty miles, through a succession of villages, gardens, and cultivation, to Karmina, a large and populous village; the third to Zen-o-Deen, a village; the fourth to Khet-e-Courgam, a considerable town; the fifth to Samarcand. Four days' journey south-east of Bukharia is the district and town of Karcive, of no great magnitude, and deficient in water. The country around produces little else than wheat and barley. About a hundred miles east of the capital, and separated from the open country by a chain of low hills, lies the town of Kheish or Sheler-e-Subz. This district is said to be blessed with a fine climate and an abundant supply of water. It is verdant and richly wooded, interspersed with valleys that yield abundantly fruits and grain, and it contains many flourishing villages. The town of Kheish, which contains from twenty to thirty thousand inhabitants, and is sur-

rounded with fine gardens, displays, along with its environs, Bukharia. a beautiful combination of wood, water, and mountain scenery. The chief of this district is said to be only nominally dependent on Bukharia, to whose sovereign all the allegiance that he owes is to furnish a contingent of troops in case of need. There are several other districts nominally dependent on the sovereign of Bukharia; namely, the district of Ouratoppch, eleven days' journey or three hundred and thirty miles east-north-east of Bukharia; and the district of Hissar at the same distance, in a direction east-south-east. It is described as fertile and well watered; and its chief town, Deh No, is large and populous.

Bukharia being an elevated table land, its climate is modified by the height of the ground; and in winter the cold is severe. The rivers are frozen over, and remain in that condition for about three months; and even the great Oxus is passable for caravans. During all this period the wind is dry and piercingly cold, and the ground is covered with snow. Light rains are common during the three months of spring, every three or four days, from the west. In summer the wind generally blows from the north-west, and is frequently scorching, especially during the first two months of summer. Bukharia is without the range of the tropical rains, but there are light showers in summer; and in autumn heavy rains set in from the west.

Such parts of the country as are not desert are fertile, and yield two crops in the year, one in spring, the other in autumn. The spring crop consists of a species of wheat and barley, jowarree, and various other grains; cotton, madder, with sweet and water melons, cucumbers, &c. The autumn crop consists of another species of wheat and barley, which are chiefly reaped at this season, and a little jowarree. Besides the moisture derived from the heavens, the fields in the spring are watered from wells by means of Persian wheels; and during the autumn by water-courses, which are supplied by embanking the streams of rivers. Bukharia yields a variety of excellent fruits, such as apples, pears, quinces, plums, peaches, apricots, cherries, figs, pomegranates, mulberries, grapes, melons, &c. The musk melons especially are mentioned as remarkable for size and flavour, often weighing twenty pounds, and being fresh and good for eight months in the year.

The population of Bukharia consists of the Osobecks or Ubecks, a Tartar tribe; the Tadjika, a race widely diffused over all those countries; and the Toorkomans, of various tribes. Of these the Ubecks are by far the most numerous, in the towns and villages as well as in the tents of the desert. They are for the most part of a short and stout make, their complexion is clear and ruddy, with the hair thick and the beard thin, a broad forehead, high cheek bones, and small eyes. Their dress consists in summer of a cotton shirt and drawers, and in winter of a woollen shirt, over which they throw a silk or woollen wrapping gown, tied round the waist with a girdle. In cold weather they wrap themselves in sheep-skin, or in a coat of thick felt. In summer they wear a painted cap of silk; in winter one of broad cloth lined with fur. Bandages of cloth are rolled round the legs instead of stockings, and boots are in general use. The women wear a pair of trousers and shift of silk or cotton, and over this is thrown a robe like that of the men; the dress of both sexes being very similar. The Ubecks who dwell in the tents live in parties of from two hundred to a thousand families; each of these tribes has a ruler or chief, chosen by common consent, who adjusts all disputes, and acts in the capacity of judge. In serious matters, two or three chiefs are called to decide; and if they cannot agree, they refer the matter to the cauze, an officer appointed by the king, and held in general awe. The chief or the beg collects the revenue, which

Bukharia. he pays to the king's officer or amil, who is sent to him to receive the sheep, camels, oxen, or other animals that are due, in the proportion of one in forty, from the flocks or herds of the desert; a price is then fixed on them, which is paid in money to the king's officer. All these tribes are in perfect subjection to the king, who discourages the confederacy of large tribes, and even directly prevents it. In the towns the women never appear without veils; but among the wandering tribes they have no such concealment, and with their faces uncovered they carry on all their usual domestic occupations of working, making clothes, cooking, carrying water, &c. Fraser, during his residence in Persia, received from all those with whom he conversed, very favourable impressions of the Usbecks of Bukharia. They are said, he observes, "to be honest, just, sincere, good tempered, generally well disposed, and by no means either cruel or treacherous;" to be less given to quarrels and murderous revenge than their neighbours, less stained with foul crimes and profligacy, to be hospitable and kind; and the same traveller adds, "from what I have heard, strangers, after passing through the dangers of their frontier, would probably be well treated, and secure." Several facts, however, which are stated by Mr Fraser do not certainly agree with this favourable character. Among these he relates an adventure of a native of Kabooshan who went to Bukharia on business, and who, being suspected by the king, was called before him and questioned; but attempting to disguise his real character, he was seized as an impostor, and thrown into prison, where he was nearly starved to death, and was at last taken out and sold in the public market as a slave. He retained his clothes, in which he had sewed a sum of money, with which he afterwards purchased his freedom, and returned to his own country, where he told the story to Mr Fraser. With regard also to the purity of their morals, several persons, who had good opportunities of knowing, informed him that the most odious vices were practised, even more openly than in Persia. To Europeans all access to these countries is denied by the intolerance of the people, who would insult them, and probably put them to death, or sell them for slaves. They evince the same hatred of the Mahomedans who differ from them; and they are at constant war with the Sheabs (they themselves being zealous Soonies), whom they make no scruple, and even think it praiseworthy, to sell for slaves. The Usbecks, true to their Tartar origin, delight in war, and pride themselves in being the bravest and most robust of the Tartar race. Some say they are fond of horse flesh; but this is denied. There is no doubt, however, of their fondness for the national drink, called kimmiz, an intoxicating liquor prepared from mare's milk by shaking it violently in a skin for several hours. They are also fond of tea. They are patient of hunger, thirst, and fatigue, and are renowned for their activity in predatory war.

Of the Tanjuks the origin is not known. They are widely diffused, however, over all the countries of the East, and are generally distinguished from the various races of Tartars by their commercial, industrious, and pacific habits, and by their residence in cities and in fixed habitations rather than in tents. The Tanjuks are all engaged in commerce, being either merchants, tradesmen, or mechanics; but they are described as being dissolute and corrupt. They bear a small proportion in Bukharia to the Usbecks, from whom they differ in appearance and features, being of ordinary stature, and fair complexion, with black expressive eyes, a hawk nose, well-shaped face, fine black hair, and thick beards. The Tookomans, who are wandering Tartars, ferocious and warlike in their habits, and divided into a variety of tribes, form a very scattered population. They inhabit chiefly the banks of the Oxus,

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and the fertile spots scattered throughout the desert; but they are also to be found in greater or smaller numbers all over the more fruitful and well-watered country to the south and south-east of Bukharia.

The government of this country, as of most countries in Asia, is a despotic monarchy, in which the king is perfectly absolute, the fountain of all authority and power. The ulema and heads of religion alone have influence to control him; and these the present monarch, Shah Hyder, has brought under his power, and he has even put some of the most highly esteemed among them to death without the smallest disturbance. They hold, however, the first rank in the state. One class of these priests claim their descent from the caliph Abubekr, and are accounted the greatest among these holy personages; while they derive so much weight from their wealth and their extensive possessions, that they have been in some measure considered as independent of the king. But they do not enjoy the first rank among the ecclesiastics. That distinction belongs to an officer, the head of another class, who sits on his majesty's right hand, on an elevated seat; and after him come the chief cauzees and muftis, with the rest of the ulema or priestly order. The omrahs, or nobles belonging to the army, only occupy the second rank before the king, sitting on his left hand; and the first of them is the commander-in-chief, followed by his officers in their respective ranks. Then come the civil functionaries and confidential slaves, according to their offices. The king's treasurer, who has the highest rank of any civil officer, stands always in front of the throne. In its arrangements the court is said to resemble that of Afghanistan, but to be far more splendid, the officers wearing rich gold brocade, and embroidered broad-cloth dresses, but no jewels.

Bukharia and the cultivated country around is divided into seven districts, each district containing many villages, and each village having its separate system of government. The chief authority in the district is in the elder or president, chosen by the inhabitants for his respectability, wisdom, and learning. His office is permanent, and indeed is commonly hereditary. His business is to decide in all disputes, to collect the revenue, and to levy the militia; and he is aided in these matters by inferior officers, chosen, as he is himself, by the people. The sovereign of the country is, however, the chief judge; and when he attends to his duties, and dispenses justice with impartiality, his example is copied in all the other departments of his government, and there is less occasion to employ delegates of high rank. But all depends on the personal character of the king, and when he is negligent and corrupt, similar evils run through every branch of the public administration. In these rude and lawless countries life and property are not secured, as in Europe, by permanent institutions; the inclinations and passions of the monarch form the only rule of his conduct; and where the people are not plundered and oppressed, they owe this immunity from outrage, not to the protection of fixed laws, but to the gracious dispositions of the reigning sovereign.

The public revenue arises from a tax on land, which amounts to a tithe of the produce; a tax of one fortieth on flocks, money, and other movables; and a custom duty, which amounts to a fortieth, on the entrance and exit of all goods. There is a capitation tax also on all inhabitants who are not of the Mahomedan faith, of from sixpence to two shillings a head. Of the amount of the revenue derived from these various sources we have no account that can be depended on. It is expended by the king in the maintenance of the army, on the priesthood, including benefactions to religious, charitable, and learned institutions, and all other contingencies of government. His own expenses are supplied from the capitation tax. Va-

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Bukharian accounts are given of the military establishment of Bukharia, and of the number of the troops. By some writers they have been estimated at a hundred thousand, by others so low as thirty thousand; but this discrepancy may be accounted for by supposing the one number to apply to the troops which may be called out in cases of emergency, and the other to the troops which are kept always in readiness. The army consists entirely of cavalry, who are armed with a very long lance, a sword, and a shield; a certain number, probably a third, have matchlocks; and they all wear long knives and daggers at the waist.

Bukharia is an entrepôt of the general trade which is carried on between the east and the west of Asia; and as it enjoys peace and security under the equitable administration of its present monarch, Shah Hyder, its trade is extensive, and a regular intercourse is maintained with Russia by the way of Orenburg, with Persia through Mushed, with Herat, Cabul, Peshawer, Shikarpore, Buduckshan, Cashmere, China, and all the countries which depend on them. Two caravans pass every year between Russia and Bukharia, consisting of from four to five thousand camels each. Russia sends into Asia iron, steel, copper, brass, quiversilver, hardware, plated goods, gold and silver embroidery; furs, broad cloths, white and coloured cotton manufactured goods, cochineal, refined sugar, paper, and a variety of such articles. The exports from Bukharia are black lamb-skins, certain manufactures of cotton and silk, lapis lazuli, rubies from Buduckshan, torques from Persia, antique gems, coins, medals, and various other antique utensils, and arms. These latter articles are found among the ruins of the ancient cities which formerly flourished in this country. The extensive ruins of one city, Khogahwooban, lie buried under sand, in which it is the practice to dig after rain, when many articles of value are found, particularly plate, utensils of gold and silver, all which are eagerly purchased by the Russian merchants, who give for them five times their weight, and an exorbitant price for carved gems, both cameos and intaglios, some of which are of extraordinary beauty. Four or five guineas each were asked from Fraser while he was in Persia for oval stones of cornelian, garnet, and sardonyx, on which figures were cut, some of which exceeded five-eighths of an inch in length; and the same traveller mentions, that for a sardonyx cameo about an inch and a half long by an inch broad, bearing the head and shoulders of a queen, exquisitely cut, L.700 or L.800 were refused by a Persian virtuoso. Bukharia imports from Persia the shawls and woollen goods of Kerman, and the silk stuffs of Yazd and Ispahan; from the latter place also gold and silver embroidery, copper-ware, and other articles; from Cashan, Hamadan leather, loaf, candy, and raw sugar. Besides their own productions of lamb-skins, cloth made of camels' hair, coarse coloured silk handkerchiefs, tobacco, &c. they send the indigo, cochineal, chintzes, and cotton manufactures of India. From Cabul, Peshawer, and Shikarpore, and the countries which lie to the south and east, Bukharia receives wool, turbans, white cotton cloth, chintz, sugar in all shapes, yellow stick for dyes, spices, black pepper, &c. The returns are made in horses, copper, silk vests and cloth, and various other manufactures; plated and gilt copper ware imported from Russia; silk and silk stuffs, tea and China ware. From Kasliagar, Yarkund, and the countries on the side of China, are brought large quantities of tea, China ware, and all the productions of China; and the articles exported are the same as those already enumerated. Bukharia carries on an extensive trade in horses, for which, outside the capital, there is a market every Saturday, Monday, and Thursday. They are exported in considerable numbers to Afghanistan, whence they find their way

to India. These horses of Bukharia, though they are strong, and well enough suited to the country, are far inferior to the Persian and Toorkoman breeds. They have a very large and powerful breed of asses, which are greatly valued for the road. The currency of this country consists of tillas, a gold coin worth ten shillings and sixpence, and of tenghes, a silver coin, value sixpence. Bills of exchange are not common, nor are they well understood; and when an order is given by a merchant or his agent at a distant place, a rate of exchange is exacted of from twenty to twenty-five per cent.

Bukharia was known to the ancients under the name of Sogdiana; and was too far removed to the east ever to be brought under the wide-spreading dominion of Rome. But it has shared deeply in all the various and bloody revolutions of Asia. It is mentioned by the earliest historical writers of Persia; and about the year 856, Yacoub-hin-Leis is said to have been invested with the government of that province by the caliph. About twenty years after, it was conquered by Ismael, the first sovereign of the Sassanian dynasty, whose successors held it until the renowned Malek Shah, third of the Seljuik dynasty of Persia, passed the Oxus about the end of the eleventh century, and subdued the whole country watered by that river and the Jaxartes. In the year of the hejira 594, A. D. 1216, Bukharia was again subdued by the celebrated Mahomed Shah Khauresme, who enjoyed his conquest but a short time ere it was wrested from him by the irresistible power of Ghenghis Khan in A. D. 1220. The country was wasted by the fury of this savage conqueror; but recovered some share of its former prosperity under Octai Khan, his son, whose disposition was humane and benevolent. His posterity retained the dominion of this country until about the year 1500, when Tamerlane with his mighty host bore down every thing before him, and spread far and wide the terror of his arms. His descendants ruled in the country until about the year 1500, when it was overrun by the Usbeck Tartars, in whose possession it still remains. The present king claims his descent from Sheibahnee Khan, who reigned in Bukharia about the beginning of the sixteenth century, and who was a descendant of the great Ghenghis Khan. His dominion extended over the countries north and west of the Caspian, now subject to Russia; and being driven from these, he retreated to Bukharia, and extended his sway over Balk, Buduckshan, Herat, Merve, and Khauzrem. He was slain in a great battle with the Persian king, after a reign of twenty-two years; and was succeeded by his nephew Obaidollah, who conquered part of Khorassan, including Mushed, where he committed great devastation, putting multitudes of the inhabitants to the sword. He was succeeded by his cousin Isander Khan, who reigned twelve years, in the course of which he is said to have built twelve hundred mosques, caravanserais, and water cisterns, for the convenience of travellers; and the latter was succeeded by Abdoolah Khan, who reigned thirty years. His son Abdool-momen was deposed by the Omrahs after a reign of six months. His cousin Wullee Mahomed Khan succeeded, and reigned eighteen years, when he left the throne to his son Koollee Khan, who after a reign of sixteen years became blind, and resigning the kingdom to Seyid Nadir his half-brother, went on a pilgrimage to Mecca, where he died. Seyid Nadir reigned twenty-four years, and amassed great treasures. He had twelve sons, one of whom, Abdool Azeze, rebelled against him, and seized upon the throne; in consequence of which the father retired to Mecca, where he ended his days. Abdool Azeze, after reigning thirty years, first at Bukharia, and afterwards at Balk, resigned his throne to Koollee Khan, and, following the example of his father and uncle, retired to Mecca. His

Bukharia. brother reigned twenty-four years, and was succeeded by his youngest son, Obeidoola Khan, whilst his elder brother reigned at Balk. These two rival chiefs went to war, and were succeeded by their younger brother, Aboul Feize Khan, who being of an indolent disposition, lost the greater part of his dominions. It was in his reign that Nadir Shah, in 1740, crossed the Oxus, and having advanced within three days' journey of the capital, sent messengers to demand of the king whether he meant to oppose his further progress. The king of Bukharia, sensible of his weakness, submitted to his clemency; and on being required to furnish a supply of provisions for his army, at the rate of two mauns of wheat and one of barley for every house in the capital, he sent the requisition according to the Bukharia measure, of which one maun is equal to sixty Persian mauns; with which Nadir Shah was so pleased, that he departed from his dominions, and confirmed the king on his throne. He was finally dethroned by Itaheem Khan, a usurper, who, by his vigorous administration, restored order and tranquillity throughout his dominions; and dying without male issue, Dauniar Beg, his uncle, and a descendant of the royal stock, was raised by common consent to the throne. He was a weak prince, and was succeeded by his son Shah Murad, who by his capacity and talent extended his territories, on the one side to the Jaxartes, Jihon, Sihoon, or Seer river, and on the other beyond the Amoo or Oxus, reconquering Balk from the Afghans, and Merve from its Persian governor, which he destroyed, and it has remained desolate ever since. He reigned sixteen years, and was succeeded by his son Shah Hyder, who now rules in Bukharia, and who is described as mild, pacific, unambitious, charitable, just, and religious even to bigotry. The above account of the rulers of Bukharia was received by Mr Fraser when he was at Mushed in 1822, from a hereditary historian of the family, in presence of the king's brother, then residing at Mushed. We have no data from which to form even a conjecture as to the population of Bukharia. The inhabitants are chiefly collected in the great towns and their dependent villages; and by Mr Irvine, who accompanied Mr Elphinstone in his embassy to Afghanistan, they are estimated at 3,600,000.

Fraser's *Narrative of a Journey into Khorassan*; Sir J. Malcolm's *History of Persia*; Kinneir's *Geographical Memoir of Persia*; Elphinstone's *Account of the Kingdom of Cabul and its Dependencies*. (v.)

BUKHARIA, or BOKHARA, a large and opulent city, the capital of the above country, situated about twenty miles south-west of the Kohik, a tributary stream of the Oxus, from which river the city is distant about fifty miles. It occupies a rising ground, and is of very great extent; and though it is said to cover less ground within the walls than Isfahan, it contains only well-built and well-inhabited houses, without any intermixture of ruins. The houses are in general two, and even three stories high, built of raw brick, and often strengthened by wooden frame-work. Those of an inferior description are also constructed of frames of timber work, filled up with mud and fragments of brick. All are plastered over with a coat of lime cement, and many of them are handsomely decorated with painting, both inside and out. It is surrounded by a lofty wall of earth, faced and covered at the top with unburnt bricks, and having brick towers at certain distances from each other. The wall is not in good condition, and the earth has long been mouldering away; so that neither the wall nor towers could make any defence. The wall has twelve gates, from which a continuous line of bazars, with rows of houses and gardens, extends for ten or twelve miles into the country, the space inhabited without the walls greatly exceeding the space within. On the north-east of

the town stands a citadel, on an eminence, having sixteen guns and mortars, great and small, without carriages, lying on the ground; near it is a large well-built mosque, where the king himself, on Fridays, reads the service usually performed in the mosques, and acts as imam. A market is held every day at noon before this mosque and citadel, where stands a gallows, on which murderers, highway robbers, and such as have robbed three times, are hanged by the king's orders. In the centre of the city is a large edifice, having a dome built of stone and lime, inside of which are four streets, one of them closed up at one end; and in it are all the shops of the booksellers. A market is held here every morning. There are, besides, several other bazars, which are chiefly roofed in from the weather, and numerous caravanserais for travellers. Bukharia has long been renowned among the eastern cities for its sanctity and learning, and it abounds in mosques and medressas or colleges beyond all other buildings. Among the former is still extant the mosque from which Ghenghis Khan harangued the people on his entrance into the city. There are about eighty colleges, chiefly built of stone, and containing from forty to two hundred and even three hundred chambers, each calculated to contain two students. Those colleges are supported by the rents of land or of shops in the bazar, amounting to from one hundred to five thousand rupees a year. To build and to endow colleges is reckoned a pious work, and wealthy men contribute liberally to such objects; and they are also promoted by the king, who gives to them, out of the taxes, from five to fifteen tillas a month, each till being of the value of 10s. 6d. The city also contains numerous tombs of pious devotees, which are visited from religious motives, and some of which are richly endowed and highly decorated. The town is chiefly supplied with water from the river Kohik, which passing, as already mentioned, about twenty miles to the north-east of it, after leaving the hills near Samarcand, feeds several canals, that water the town and all the adjacent gardens. Once in fifteen days water is made to flow into the reservoirs of the town; and it is on this supply that the inhabitants depend, as there are no wells in the surrounding plain. The water is said, however, not to be wholesome; and after using it during the spring and summer months, sickness begins to prevail; the guinea worm in the skin is so common, that few escape it; fevers and complaints of the bowels are common; and though there are numerous practitioners, the science of medicine is at a low ebb, being chiefly followed by ignorant pretenders.

Bukharia is a great emporium of trade, and an entrepôt for the productions of China and the countries of Eastern Asia, as well as for those of Persia and Western Asia, which are respectively interchanged for each other. The account of its extent and population given to Fraser, to whom we are indebted for all our knowledge of this great eastern city, was, that it contained within the walls a hundred and twenty thousand houses; and that in the suburbs and immediate dependencies it contained as much more. "This," says Fraser, "may be a great exaggeration; but there is," he adds, "no doubt that this city contains a population far exceeding that of any other city in Asia which we know of, except Peking and some others in China, and Calcutta, with one or two others in India."

This great city was taken by Ghenghis Khan in the year 1220; and that cruel conqueror, after giving to the inhabitants assurances of immunity and protection, on conditions which were very strictly fulfilled by them, being enraged at discovering that some officers belonging to the hostile army of Mahommed Shah had been protected by certain of the townsmen, their relations, gave up the city to fire and sword; and the greater part of its habitations being

Bukharia. built of brick, its destruction was complete. "The sun," says Fraser, "which rose upon its rich and crowded bazars and thickly inhabited edifices, went down at night upon a waste of smoking ashes, among which there was not one house standing except some mosques and public buildings, which being built of brick, survived the flames." The city was rebuilt by Octai Khan, the son of Ghenghis; and it gradually recovered its former prosperity, which it still retains. Long. 62. 45. E. Lat. 39. 37. N. (F.)

BUKHARIA, Little. This country, which is to the east of Great Bukharia, is very imperfectly known to Europeans. It lies amid deserts, and is bounded on the north by the country of the Kalmucks and Eygur; on the east by the desert of Kobi; on the south by the mountains of Thibet; and on the west by Great Bukharia. It is computed, but on no very satisfactory grounds, to extend seven hundred miles in length from east to west, and two hundred miles from north to south. It consists chiefly, according to the descriptions given of it, of one vast chain of mountains, with subordinate ridges diverging from it through sandy deserts. The plains are fertile, and among the mountains pleasant valleys are interspersed, watered by streams from the mountains. When this country was visited by the missionary Goes in 1603, it was divided into two kingdoms, Kashgar to the west, and Kalis to the east. It was previously divided into four states, with very imperfectly defined boundaries. The Mahomedan states and cities of Kokaun, Khojend, Yarkund, and Kashgar, are contained within Little Bukharia. Kokaun is a city of modern date. Khojend, which is sixty miles west by south, is a city of great renown, built on the left bank of the Seer or Jaxartes. Kashgar, about six hundred miles east of Kokaun, is a great commercial resort, containing ten thousand houses. Yarkund, which is in east longitude 78. 27. E. and in latitude 38. 19. N., is a large and flourishing place, and the country around is described as fruitful and well watered. All this country was subdued by Ghenghis Khan in the beginning of the thirteenth century, and it devolved on his second son, Yakatay Khan. In 1550 Yarkund, Kashgar, Hissar, Aksoo, Kuchar, Toorban, Eelah, and others, were under the dominion of the Moguls, the descendants of Timur. In 1683 they were subdued by the Kalmuck Tartars, whose king resided at Eelah, and appointed governors over the other cities. Previous to this revolution, the chief influence in the country was possessed by certain lords or great men, called Kaujahs, consisting of two classes, namely, the Aktaglick and Karataglick. The Kalmucks, the rulers of the country, being wasted by a plague that broke out among them, the Aktaglick Kaujahs rose up in arms against them, and after, as is probable, exterminating them, they fell upon the Karataglicks, expelled them from the kingdom, and seized on the supreme power. At this season they put to death an ambassador who chanced to arrive from the khan of Khatay, the emperor of China, Kien Long. Incensed by this insult, the Chinese monarch invaded the country with a large army. Being joined by the adverse faction of the nobility, he, after many severe conflicts, prevailed against the Aktaglicks, who were mostly destroyed; and ever since that period, which was in the year 1759, the country has remained under the dominion of the Chinese.

Mr Fraser, when he was at Mushed, conversed with many intelligent merchants, and among these with one Hussun Mervee, who had repeatedly travelled through those countries; and they all concur in the same representation of the peace and happiness which they enjoy under the active police of the Chinese government. The moment a traveller or merchant enters their dominions, an account is taken of his person, equipage, and goods, and dispatched by an express on the road through which he is

to travel. By this he is recognised, and receives permission to pass along through the guards and watchmen, who are everywhere upon duty, and so vigilant, that if a traveller loses any thing on the road, he is sure to have it restored to him; and no disorders or robberies can take place without the instant pursuit, and generally the seizure and punishment, of the culprit. This account of the exact order which prevails throughout all parts of the Chinese territories was confirmed by the account of another well-informed merchant, Selim Beg, who declared that "the moment the limits of Bukharia are passed, a most important change is to be perceived in the manners of the people, and particularly among the Eels; all is peace and tranquillity; there is neither robbery nor pilfering; and there is perfect security even for the smallest parties, or for individuals. This security increases the nearer you approach the Chinese territories, and when once within these limits all risk ceases."

The Chinese derive a revenue in these conquered countries from two sources, namely, a tax on merchandise, and a species of monthly capitation tax, to which all males exceeding the age of twelve are subjected. This tax varies with the circumstances of the individual, from a halfpenny to fifteen or sixteen shillings. To each city is attached a Mahomedan judge and two Chinese collectors, all under the control of a chief, who resides at Kashgar, with various other inferior officers. (F.)

BUL, in the ancient Hebrew chronology, the eighth month of the ecclesiastical, and the second of the civil year. It has since been called *Marshewan*, and answers to our October.

BULAH, a large village of Upper Egypt, two miles to the west of Cairo, to which city it serves as a harbour. It contains a custom-house, magazines, and a large bazar. Here the baths are very fine.

BULAM, or **BULAMA.** See **BISSAGOS.**

BULARCHUS, a Greek painter, the first who introduced, among the Greeks at least, different colours in the same picture. He flourished in 740 B. C.

BULB, a kind of large bud, generally produced under the ground, upon or near the root of certain herbaceous plants, hence denominated *bulbous*. See **ANATOMY, VEGETABLE.**

BULEUTÆ, in *Greecian Antiquity*, were magistrates answering to the decurions among the Romans. See **DECURIO.**

BULFINCH. See **ORNITHOLOGY, Index.**

BULGARIA, a province of European Turkey, extending from the mouth of the Danube, along that river till it meets the Timok above Widdin, on the borders of Servia. The Danube forms the whole of its northern, and the parallel chain of the Balkan its southern boundary. It is about three hundred and fifty miles long, extending from the Black Sea to Servia, by from forty to fifty broad.

This province was the *Moria Inferior* of the Romans, and derives its present name from the Bulgari or Bulgares, one of the northern hordes who abandoned their dreary plains to seek a more propitious climate in the south. They left the Wolga in the sixth century, and crossing the Danube near its mouth, established themselves in the inviting country which lies between that river and the mountains, extending westward from the shore of the Euxine. Here they defied all the efforts of the Greeks of the lower empire to dispossess them; and their various and sanguinary conflicts form a considerable portion of the history of that period. They carried on many contests with the emperors of the East; but in the eleventh century they were at length confined within certain limits, and the country was reduced to the state of a province. On the decline of the Greek empire, however, it was finally brought

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Bulgaria. under the Turkish yoke by Bajazet, when the Turks had established themselves in the neighbouring province of Rumelia, the ancient Thrace.

The country, except in the neighbourhood of the Danube and the Euxine, is mountainous; but the sides of the smaller hills afford excellent pasture, and the soil is exceedingly rich and fertile. It is irrigated by a number of rivers and streams, the tributaries of the Danube. The climate is mild, and the productions accordingly are various and abundant. There is a profusion of grain, cattle, wine, wood, iron, &c.; and the province is looked upon by the Turks as the granary of Constantinople. The people have entirely laid aside the warlike character which distinguished their ancestors. The avocations of the greater number of them are pastoral, and their character corresponds with that which is always identified with this mode of life. Mr Walsh, the most recent traveller who has visited the province, gives the following graphic and interesting description of the appearance and character of the people. "Of all the peasantry I have ever met with," says he, "the Bulgarians seem the most simple, kind, and affectionate; forming a striking contrast with the rude and brutal Turks, who are mixed among them, but distinguished by the strongest traits of character. On the road we frequently met groups of both, always separate, but employed in the same avocations; the Turks were known by turbans, sashes, pistols, and yatigans; but still more by a ferocity of aspect, a rude assumption of demeanour, and a careless kind of contempt, that at once repelled and disgusted us. They never turned their buffaloes or arabas out of the way to let us pass, or showed the smallest wish to be civil or obliging; on the contrary, they were pleased if they pushed us into a bog in the narrow road, or entangled us among trees or bushes. Any accommodation in houses was out of the question; if we approached one for a drink of milk or water, we ran the hazard of being stabbed or shot. The Bulgarians were distinguished by caps of brown sheepskin; jackets of cloth, made of the wool undyed of dark brown sheep, which their wives spin and weave; white cloth trousers, and sandals of raw leather, drawn under the sole, and laced with thongs over the instep; and they carried neither pistol or yatigan, nor any other weapon of offence; but they were still more distinguished by their countenance and demeanour. The first is open, artless, and benevolent; and the second is so kind and cordial, that every one we met seemed to welcome us as friends. Whenever their buffaloes or arabas stopped up the way, they were prompt to turn them aside; and whenever they saw us embarrassed, or obliged to get out of the road, they were eager to show us it was not their fault. Their houses were always open to us, and our presence was a kind of jubilee to the family; the compensation we gave scarcely deserved the name, and, I am disposed to think, if not offered, would not have been asked for. Turkish women we never saw; the Bulgarian women mixed freely with us in the domestic way, and treated us with the unsuspecting cordiality they would show to brothers. Their dress was neat, clean, and comfortable; it generally consisted of a jacket and petticoat of dark blue cloth, with a bright border of list round the edges or down the seams; and a shift of hemp and cotton, very large, hanging far below the petticoat, and gathered in full folds round the neck and arms, and worked or wove with lace-like borders. Married women wear handkerchiefs on their heads, with a long lappet hanging on the back behind; girls have their heads uncovered, with their hair braided and ornamented with different coins. All wear ear-rings, bracelets, and rings on their fingers, even girls of three and four years old, and all go barefooted. They are exceedingly industrious, and are never for a moment without their spindle and distaff;

they frequently asked for needles, and I greatly regretted I had not brought a few scissors and other ferrous implements, which would have been highly acceptable to them. Their villages generally consist of forty or fifty houses, scattered without order or regularity. Their houses are built of wicker-work plastered, and are clean and comfortable on the inside."

The Bulgarians fabricate to a great extent several articles which are famous in Turkey: one is a coarse woollen cloth, and another rifle gun-barrels. But that which is most congenial to their rural habits is the preparation of the otto or attar of roses, a great part of which comes to England. Rose trees are very plentiful, and gardens are laid out for the purpose of cultivating them. The language of the people is a dialect of the Slavonian, and bears a resemblance to the Russian. Only a few elementary books have been printed in this language, and it has never been reduced to grammatical rules. The books introduced are in Greek, but that language has made no progress amongst the people, and the consequence is that they are entirely illiterate. Their religion is Christianity, which they embraced on their arrival in the district. They belong to the Greek church, subject to the Greek patriarch of Constantinople, who appoints their bishops. There is generally attached to every two or three villages a priest, who performs the duties of his vocation in each occasionally; but, unless in a very few places, they are destitute of churches, schools, and books. The principal towns, such as Sophia, Shumla, Ternevo, &c., will be described as they occur alphabetically.

The Bulgarians have extended themselves beyond the limits defined at the commencement. They have crossed the chain of mountains, and now occupy almost exclusively a considerable portion of Rumelia. They are gradually advancing, and in course of time, if their barbarous neighbours allow them to proceed, they are likely to cultivate the almost solitary desert which lies between the Balkan and the sea. The population of Bulgaria is estimated at about 1,800,000.

BULK or **SHIP**, the whole space in the hold for the stowage of goods.

BULK-HEADS are partitions made athwart the ship with boards, by which one part is divided from the other; as the great cabin, gun-room, bread-room, and several other divisions. The *bulk-head afore* is the partition between the fore-castle and gratings in the head.

BULKAU, a city in the Austrian province of the Lower Ens, and the circle of Marhartsberge, on a river of the same name, containing 301 houses, and three thousand one hundred and fifty inhabitants.

BULKIE, or **BALK**. See **BALK**.

BULL, Dr JOHN, a celebrated musician and composer, was born in Somersetshire about the year 1563. He received his education under Blitheman. In 1586 he was admitted at Oxford to the degree of bachelor of music, having practised in that faculty fourteen years; and in 1592 he was created doctor in the university of Cambridge. In 1591 he was appointed organist of the queen's chapel, in the room of his master, Blitheman.

Bull was the first Gresham professor of music, having been appointed to that station on the special recommendation of Queen Elizabeth. But however skilful he might be in his profession, he was not, it seems, able to read his lectures in Latin; and therefore, by a special provision in the ordinances respecting the Gresham professors, made in the year 1597, it is declared, that because Dr Bull was recommended to the office of music professor by the queen's most excellent majesty, his lectures should be permitted to be altogether English, so long as he should continue music professor there, he being unable to speak Latin.

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Bull.

Dr Ward, who has given some particulars of Dr Bull, in his Lives of the Gresham Professors, relates, that upon the decease of Queen Elizabeth he became chief organist to King James, and had the honour of entertaining his majesty and Prince Henry at Merchant Tailors' Hall, with his performance on the organ. The same author states, that, in 1613, Bull quitted England and went to reside in the Netherlands, where he was admitted into the service of the archduke. Wood says that he died at Hamburg; others state that he died at Lubeck.

BULL, George, bishop of St David's, was born at Wells in 1634, and educated at Exeter College, Oxford. The first benefice he enjoyed was that of St George's near Bristol, from which he rose successively to be rector of Suddington in Gloucestershire, prebendary of Gloucester, archdeacon of Llandaff, and in 1705 bishop of St David's. This dignity he enjoyed about four years, and died in 1709. During the usurpation of Cromwell he adhered steadily, though still with great prudence, to the forms of the church of England; and in the reign of James II. preached very strenuously against the errors of popery. He wrote, 1. A Defence of the Nicene Faith; 2. Apostolical Harmony; 3. Primitive Apostolical Tradition; and other works.

BULL, among ecclesiastics, a letter written on parchment, sealed with lead, and issued by order of the pope, from the Roman rota or chancery. It is a kind of apostolical rescript or edict, and is chiefly in use in matters of justice or grace. If the former be the intention of the bull, the lead is hung by a hempen cord; if the latter, by a silken thread. It is this pendant lead or seal which is, properly speaking, the bull, and which is impressed on one side with the heads of St Peter and St Paul, and on the other with the name of the pope and the year of his pontificate. The bull is written in an old round Gothic character, and is divided into five parts, the narrative of the fact, the conception, the clause, the date, and the salutation, in which the pope styles himself *servus servorum*, or the servant of servants. These instruments, besides the lead appended to them, have a cross, with some texts of Scripture, or a religious motto, on it. Bulls are granted for the consecration of bishops, the promotion to benefices, the celebration of jubilees, and many other purposes.

BULL. See MAMMALIA, *Index*; also AGRICULTURE, *Index*.

BULL-Fighting, a sport or exercise much in vogue among the Spaniards and Portuguese, consisting in a kind of combat of a cavalier or torreador against a wild bull, either on foot or on horseback. This sport the Spaniards received from the Moors, among whom it was celebrated with great pomp. Some think that the Moors might have received the custom from the Romans, and the latter from the Greeks. Dr Plot is of opinion that the *ταυρομαχία* *tauromachia* among the Thessalians, who first instituted this game, and of whom Julius Cæsar learned and brought it to Rome, were the origin both of the Spanish and Portuguese bull-fighting, and of the English bull-running. See SPAIN.

BULL-HEAD. See ICHTHYOLOGY, *Index*.

BULL in Cana Domini, a particular bull read in the pope's presence every year, on the day of the Lord's Supper, or Maundy Thursday, and containing excommunications and anathemas against heretics, and all who disturb or oppose the jurisdiction of the holy see. After the reading of the bull, the pope throws a burning torch in the public place, to denote the thunder of this anathema.

Golden BULL, an edict or imperial constitution made by the Emperor Charles IV., and hence called Caroline, reputed to be the magna charta or the fundamental law of the German empire. It is called *golden*, because it has a golden seal, in the form of a pope's bull, tied with yel-

low and red cords of silk; while on one side the emperor is represented sitting on his throne, and on the other the capitol of Rome. Till the publication of the golden bull, the form and ceremony of the election of an emperor were unsettled, and the number of the electors was not fixed. This solemn edict regulated the functions, rights, privileges, and precedence of the electors. The original, which is in Latin, on vellum, is preserved at Francfort. This ordinance, containing thirty articles or chapters, was approved of by all the princes of the empire.

Silver BULLS were not in so frequent use, though instances of them are to be met with.

Leadens BULLS were sent by the emperors of Constantinople to patriarchs and princes; and they were also used by the grantees of the imperial court, as well as by the kings of France, Sicily, and other countries; and by bishops, patriarchs, and popes. It is to be observed that the leaden bulls of these last had, on one side, the name of the pope or bishop inscribed. According to Polydore Virgil, Pope Stephen III. was the first who used leaden bulls about the year 772; but instances of them are to be met with as early as the times of Silvester, Leo I. and Gregory the Great. The latter popes, besides their own names, strike the figures of St Peter and St Paul on their bulls, a practice first introduced by Pope Paschal II. But why, in these bulls, the figure of St Paul is on the right, and that of St Peter on the left side, is a question which has occasioned many conjectures and disputes.

Waxen BULLS are said to have been first brought into England by the Normans. They were in frequent use among the Greek emperors, who thus sealed letters to their wives, mothers, and sons, and were of two sorts, one red and the other green.

BULLÆ, in antiquity, a kind of ornament much in use among the ancient Romans. Mr Whittaker (*History of Manchester*, vol. I. p. 79) is of opinion that they were originally formed of leather among all ranks of people; and it is certain that they continued so to the last among the commons. He also imagines that at first the bulla was intended as an amulet rather than an ornament; and in proof of this he mentions that the bullæ were frequently impressed with the figure of the sexual parts. It is universally asserted by the critics that the bullæ were made hollow for the reception of an amulet; but this Mr Whittaker contradicts, from the figure of a golden one found at Manchester, which had no aperture by which an amulet could have been introduced. Pliny refers the origin of the bulla to the elder Tarquin, who gave one along with the pretexta to his son, because at the age of fourteen he had with his own hand killed an enemy; and, in imitation of him, it was afterwards assumed by other patricians. Some, however, affirm that the bulla was given by that king to the sons of all the patricians who had borne civil office; whilst others allege that Romulus first introduced the bulla, and gave it to Tullus Hostilius, the first child born after the rape of the Sabines. As to the form of the bullæ, they seem to be originally made in the shape of a heart; but they did not always retain this form, any more than they were always made of leather. As the wealth of the state and the riches of individuals increased, the young patrician distinguished himself by a bulla of gold, whilst the common people wore the amulet of their ancestors. When the youth arrived at fifteen years of age, they hung their bullæ round the necks of their gods lares. The bullæ were not only hung round the necks of young men, but also round those of horses, and were sometimes allowed even to statues; whence the phrase *statue bullata*.

BULLÆ was also the denomination given to divers other metallic ornaments made after the same form; and in this sense *bullæ* seems to include all gold and silver orna-

Bulle
Bullidius

ments of a roundish form, whether worn on the habits of men, the trappings of horses, or the like. Such were the decorations used by the ancients on their doors and belts. The bulle of doors were a kind of large-headed nails fastened on the doors of the rich, and carefully brightened or polished. The doors of temples were sometimes adorned with golden bulle.

BULLA also denotes a table hung up in the public courts, to distinguish which days were *fasti* and which *nefasti*, and therefore answering in some measure to our calendar.

BULLEYN, WILLIAM, a learned physician and botanist, was born in the Isle of Ely in the early part of the reign of Henry VIII., and educated at Cambridge. Botany being his favourite study, he travelled through various parts of England, Scotland, and Germany, chiefly with an intention to improve his knowledge in that science.

In the reign of Edward VI. and of Queen Mary, Mr Bulleyn appears, from his remarks on the natural productions of that country, to have resided at Norwich, or in the neighbourhood, and also to have spent some time at Bloxhall in Suffolk; but he afterwards removed to the north, and settled at Durham, where he practised physic with considerable reputation and success. His great patron at this time was Sir Thomas Hilton, knight, baron of Hilton, and governor of Tinnmouth Castle in the reign of Philip and Mary. In 1560 he went to London, and soon after his arrival was accused by William Hilton of Bidick of having murdered his brother Sir Thomas, our author's friend and patron. He was arraigned before the Duke of Norfolk, and honourably acquitted. This Hilton afterwards hired some villains to assassinate the doctor; but the attempt proving ineffectual, he had him arrested on an action for debt, and sent to prison, where he remained for a long time. During this confinement Dr Bulleyn composed several of those works which established his reputation as a medical writer. He died in January 1570, and was buried in St Giles's, Cripplegate, in the same grave with his brother the divine, who had died thirteen years before, and in which John Fox the martyrologist was interred eleven years afterwards. Dr Bulleyn appears from his writings to have been well acquainted with the works of the ancient Greek, Roman, and Arabian physicians. He wrote, 1, *The Government of Health*, 1559, 8vo; 2, *A regimen against the Pleurisy*, 8vo, London 1562; 3, *Bulleyn's Bulwarke of Defence against all Sickness, Soreness, and Wounds that doe daily assault Mankind*; London, printed by John Kingston, 1562, folio, including the *Government of Health*; 4, *A Dialogue both pleasant and pitefull, wherein is a goodlie regimen against the fever pestilence, with a consolation and comfort against death*; London, 1564, 8vo, 1569, 8vo. There is a wooden print of the author prefixed to the first edition of his *Government of Health*; also a small one, engraved by Stukeley in 1722.

BULLIALDUS (the latinized form of BOULLIAU, or BOULLAUD), ISMAEL, an eminent astronomer, was born at Loudun in France in 1605. He travelled in his youth for the sake of improvement; and afterwards published several works, among which are the following, viz. 1, *De Natura Lucis*, 1638, 8vo; 2, *Philolous*, 1639, 4to; 3, *Astronomia Philolaica*, opus novum, in quo motus planetarum per novam et veram hypothesin demonstrantur, Loudun, 1645, folio; 4, *Astronomiæ Philolaicæ Fundamenta clarius explicata et asserta adversus Zethi Wardi impugnationem*, 1657, 4to; 5, *De Lineis Spiralibus Demonstrationes*, 1657, 4to; 6, *Ad Astronomos Moneta duo*, 1667; 7, *Ptolemaei Tractatus de Judicandis Facultatibus*, 1667, 4to; 8, *Opus Novum ad Arithmetican Infinitum*, 1682, folio; and other works. He also wrote a piece or two upon geometry and arithmetic. In 1661 he paid Hevelius a visit at

Dantzic, for the sake of seeing his optical and astronomical apparatus. Afterwards he became a presbyter at Paris, and died there in 1694.

BULLINGER, HENRY, born at Bremgarten in Switzerland in 1504, was an eminent Zuinglian minister, a great supporter of the reformation, and one employed in many ecclesiastical negotiations. He composed a number of works, among which may be mentioned the *Chronicle of Zurich*, the *History of the Reformation*, and the *History of the Persecutions of the Church*. He died at Zurich in 1575.

BULLION, uncoined gold or silver in the mass. Those metals are so called, either when smelted from the native ore, and not perfectly refined, or when they are perfectly refined, but melted down in bars or ingots, or in any unwrought body, of any degree of fineness.

BUMM, a city of Persia, in the province of Kirman, of which it was the frontier town until the Afghans were expelled the country. It is situated in a plain in the vicinity of high mountains, usually if not always covered with snow. About twenty years prior to 1810 this city had been the scene of repeated contests; the Afghans, assisted by the neighbouring Beloches, frequently attempting the reduction of it, in retaliation for the incursions made into their country by the Persian troops. The fortifications are in consequence so greatly strengthened that they are now accounted the strongest in Persia. They have an elevated site, and consist of a very high and thick mud wall, a deep, broad, and dry ditch, with six large bastions on each face, exclusive of those at the corners, which are higher by many yards than the others. The whole is built of mud, mixed with straw and fibrous substances; and it has a gate between the two centre bastions on the southern face. On the most elevated part of the eminence on which the town is situated stands the citadel, well fortified with a lofty wall, and towers at each corner, and containing the governor's palace and buildings belonging to it. Bumm is a very ancient, and was formerly a magnificent city, equal indeed to any in Persia; and the widely scattered ruins around the fort attest its former splendour and its immense extent. The town was greatly embellished by the Afghans, who invaded the country and made themselves masters of it in 1719. The fountains were magnificent; and some of them threw up water to an amazing height. The gardens were also very extensive; and Lieutenant Pottinger, when he visited this place, saw the remains of a garden, equal to several acres of ground, still retaining traces of having been walled in, with elegant summer-houses. The place is famed for its pomegranates, which are superior in flavour and juiciness to those of Sheeraz or Bagdad, where the best in the world are supposed to be produced. The bazaar is large, and supplies are reasonable. Since 1719 it has undergone various revolutions; and it was here that Looff Alieckhan, the last of the Zund family who disputed the succession to the throne, was made prisoner, and put to death, about the year 1794. The spot where he was seized, when in the act of mounting his horse to escape, is still marked by a pyramid made of the skulls of his adherents, by order of his cruel competitor Agha Mahomed Khan Kajjar, the first of his family who reigned in Persia. Long. 38. E. Lat. 29. 17. N.

BUNDE, a circle in the Prussian government of Minden, extending over 125 square miles, containing 5308 houses, in two towns, ten villages, and forty-seven hamlets, inhabited by 35,370 persons. The chief place, of the same name, on the river Else, contains 1438 individuals, mostly occupied in spinning.

BUNDELCUND, or BANDELKHAHN, an extensive district of the province of Allahabad, in Hindustan, between

Bullinger
Bundelcund

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the rivers Cane and Betwah, occupying a superficies of about 11,000 square miles. The south-west frontier lies in about 24° north latitude, and 80° 45' east longitude, and the territory extends about two degrees farther north. In general the face of this country is mountainous, high, and rocky; its vegetation is scanty, and the inhabitants do not bestow much care on the cultivation of it. The summits of many of the hills, however, are covered with low copses, amidst which there is but little grass interspersed. Other parts of the district exhibit a close jungle; and there are portions, consisting of fertile soil, which are brought under suitable culture.

The most valuable of all fossils, diamonds, have been long found here, particularly near the town of Purna or Pannah. The mines producing them are situated in a range of hills called by the natives Bund-Ahill, extending above twenty miles in length by between two and three in breadth, and are said to be partitioned into twenty-one divisions; but we do not know that the whole belong to Bundelcund. Of these, the mines of Maharajepoor, Rajepoor, Kimmurah, and Guddaseah, contain the finest diamonds; and one dug from the last has been reputed the largest in the world. It was kept in the fort of Cullinger, among other treasures of Rajah Himmut Bahadur. Several different rajahs are proprietors of the mines, each having the charge of his own, without any interest in the produce of the rest. A superintendent is appointed to inspect the produce; and every diamond, when found, is registered, valued, and, if the rajah does not choose to keep it, is offered for sale. When sold, he receives two thirds of the value. In the reign of the emperor Achar, the mines of Pannah produced to the amount of L.100,000 annually, and were then a considerable source of revenue; but for many years they have not been nearly so profitable, and it appears that about the year 1750 the government did not derive more from them than about L.50,000 per annum. Their present value is not exactly known. According to tradition, the mines were discovered by a fakir or religious mendicant.

The country at a distance from the mountains is agreeably diversified with clusters of eminences or small hills, separate from each other, exhibiting a picturesque appearance; and the inhabitants invariably build their villages at the bottom of a hill. They are seldom seen in any situation, and it is chiefly around the villages that the small quantity of grain raised in the district is cultivated. But Bundelcund not being a fertile country in itself, grain is brought from the banks of the Jumna and the Ganges. Many other commodities are supplied from the Deccan, or middle region of the peninsula; and large herds of bullocks are seen continually passing to the hilly part of the territory. The forests abound with tigers, and the nilgau or white-footed antelope, as also the wild boar, which are all hunted by the chief men of the country.

Inhabit-
ants.

The inhabitants, who are called Bondelas, are a brave and warlike people, entertaining high notions of independence, and impatient of constraint or indignity. They act under the full impulse of those violent passions which sway the inhabitants of the East, and lead to catastrophes of a nature unknown to Europeans. An instance of this once occurred, when the fortress of Adjyghur, besieged by the British troops, was evacuated by the garrison. The removal of the family of the refractory zemindar who had occasioned hostilities having been directed, his father-in-law was desired to prepare the females of the family for it. Instead of doing so, however, he murdered the whole with their children, eight in number, and then put an end to his own existence. But what was still more extraordinary, the perpetration of this horrible deed was apparently with the consent of the sufferers, and without

any complaint from them. The Bondelas are either Brahmins or Rajpoots. About Dittcah and Jhansi they are a stout and handsome race of men, exhibiting an appearance of opulence and contentment. They commonly go armed with a bow and spear, both of which are of excellent quality; and they know very well how to use them. They testify no apprehension in engaging veteran troops. Owing to the intestine commotions which long pervaded this district, every man carried arms; and many, availing themselves of superior force, attacked and plundered travellers, or levied contributions from them on pretence of guarding the passes which they had necessarily to traverse among the hills. Very little of their manners and customs is known. Women occasionally burn themselves along with the bodies of their deceased husbands, according to a remarkable religious principle diffused in the East, which now seems universally on the decline. The inhabitants dwell in towns and villages, of which the latter are much better than most others in India; and they have numerous strong forts, which they are accustomed to take and defend with determined vigour.

There are several considerable towns in the district, Chief such as Pannah, Firuz, or Purna, where the rajah resides, towns. on account of its proximity to the diamond mines of Chatterpoor, Dittcah, Cullinger, Jyghpoor, and Jhansi. Chatterpoor, thirty miles distant from Pannah, and six hundred and ninety-eight from Calcutta, is extensive and well built, the houses consisting chiefly of stone. Formerly it was in a flourishing condition, a place of great and active commercial transactions, and a kind of depot for goods carried between the Deccan and Mirzapoor, which is also in the province of Allahabad, and one of the principal trading towns of Hindustan. The goods were afterwards transported by numerous bullocks and camels to the places of their destination; and so much commerce was conducted here, that when Chatterpoor preserved its greatest importance, the duties levied amounted to L.50,000 yearly. It was founded by one of the rajahs of Bundelcund, and was occasionally his residence. Dittcah or Duttcah is a large town, surrounded with a stone wall, and provided with gates. It extends a mile and a half in length by nearly as much in breadth, and is populous and well built, the houses being of stone, and covered with tiles. A spacious edifice, with seven cupolas, stands at the north-west extremity, and was the former residence of the rajahs; but a palace has recently been built for them on an eminence without the town, close to which is a considerable lake. The district of Dittcah was tributary to the Mahrattas, and the rajah could raise two thousand horse and as many infantry, esteemed excellent troops. Some years ago they testified how much they were to be dreaded, in an engagement with the veteran forces under M. de Royné, a famous French general in the Mahratta service, where all the skill and ability of the commander could scarcely preserve the latter from destruction. But among the most important places of Bundelcund is Cullinger, the chief town of a subdivision of this district, which seems to have once been an independent government, and now includes ten pergunnahs or circles of villages. It has a fortification built on a lofty rock, of great extent, and is deemed impregnable by the natives. The walls are said to be six or seven miles in circuit; a hundred and seventy pieces of cannon are mounted on them, and a garrison of five thousand men is necessary for their defence. Nevertheless, its natural strength has enabled a smaller number to sustain long sieges; and the earlier invaders of Bundelcund have been compelled to retire, after unsuccessful blockades protracted during several years. So lately as the year 1810, the British army having attempted to take it by storm, was repulsed with great slaughter. However, the

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garrison of this fortress, probably dreading a repetition of the assault, evacuated the place during the night. No fortress can be more secure against the irregular approaches of an Indian army. Here the rajah kept his military stores and treasure, and it was also the residence of the Europeans in his service. It is twenty or thirty miles from Pannah, and lies in 24° 58' north latitude. Jhansi is a considerable town, but smaller than Diteah, commanded by a stone fort on a high hill in 25° 31' north latitude, and thirty-two miles distant from Chatterpoor. There is a district dependent on the town, which, from having been seventy or eighty years in the uninterrupted possession of the peshwa or chief of the Mahrattas, is in a more tranquil state, and better cultivated, than most of the neighbouring territories, which have undergone frequent changes. Hence it is frequented by caravans from various commercial towns of India; and its wealth is augmented by a trade in cloths, and the manufacture of carpets, bows, arrows, and spears, the principal arms of the Bondela tribes. In the year 1790 it afforded a revenue of about L.50,000 annually. There is an ancient city called Ouneha, but now in decay, whose rajah was formerly the head of all the tribes of Bundelcund, and from whom their chiefs received tokens of their investiture. A castle which stands here, or in the neighbourhood, resembles a Gothic building, and is said to have been erected by a rajah of old, who in one day gave orders for building fifty-two forts. This may account for the places of strength seen in Bundelcund, for which the particular character of its surface is extremely favourable.

Besides these, there are several towns, villages, and fortifications of consequence in this district; but recent events have rendered the preservation of the latter of less importance to their owners.

From ancient times Bundelcund has been divided into many petty territories, whose chiefs have incessantly disturbed the peace of their subjects by predatory incursions on each other. The successful capture of strongholds in the mountains was an encouragement to the subsistence of warfare; and in addition to the numerous ordinary sources of dispute, it is not unlikely that their joint interests in the diamond mines contributed to excite dissension. Though the predominance of power induced some one of the contending parties to claim the superiority, it was reluctantly acknowledged by the rest; and hence, instead of a common bond of union to defend the country, it was weakened by the distractions of the whole. The rajahs of Callinger are mentioned by Mahomedan writers as early as the year 1008; but it does not appear to have been incorporated with Bundelcund for several centuries afterwards. Some time in the sixteenth century, it is said that a Bondela, living in Benares, removed to a fort in the district of Ouncha, then governed by a rajah, whose confidence he speedily obtained. This Bondela had a daughter of exquisite beauty, of whom the rajah became enamoured, and demanded her in marriage. But her father, considering the proposal as a grievous insult from one whom certain circumstances now unknown prompted him to regard as his inferior in rank, he, in concert with his daughter, plotted a diabolical revenge. Acquiescence was given on the part of both; and the rajah was invited by his bride to the house of the Bondela, where the ceremony was to be performed. Here a magnificent entertainment was prepared, of which he partook plentifully along with his attendants; but it was soon succeeded by excruciating tortures: poison had been treacherously administered; and when the victims became incapable of defence, they were barbarously massacred. The Bondela then placed himself on the musnud of the rajah, which he enjoyed peaceably until his death. He was succeeded

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by his son Ber Sing Deo, whose descendant is the rajah of Ouncha; and he gained an accession of power by his services to the Subahdar of Allahabad. But he is accused of being a great plunderer; and his history is stained by the assassination of the celebrated Abul Fazel, prime minister of Acbar, which is said to have been committed by a banditti under his command. Nay, it is affirmed that he acted in compliance with the wishes of Jehangheer, the emperor's son, who was jealous of Abul Fazel's influence over his father, and who, on his accession to the throne of Delhi, intrusted Ber Sing Deo with the government of all Bundelcund, then called Dungush. On descending to a later period, we find that this territory was invaded during the government of the rajah Chatter-saul, about the middle of last century, by the chief of Furruckabad; and the rajah, to aid him in repelling the enemy, applied for support to the peshwa, Sewai Bajerow. Success having attended them, he adopted Sewai Bajerow as his son, and partitioned Bundelcund between him and his own sons, allotting him a third of his dominions, the land revenue of which was estimated at about L.1,300,000 sterling, but under an express stipulation that his posterity should be protected by the peshwa in independent possession of the remainder. The rest of his male issue, said to exceed fifty, were in a state of dependence on their two brothers. In time this division opened the way to dissensions, a civil war ensued, and the consequent weakness of the chiefs afforded an opportunity for other invasions. Ali Bahauder, an illegitimate grandson of Bajerow, held a command in the army of Scindia, the noted Mahratta chief; and in the same army was the rajah Himmut Bahauder, who not only commanded a great body of cavalry, but was the spiritual head and military leader of a numerous sect of devotees called Gossains. Both seem to have fallen under the displeasure of the peshwa; and the latter, after retiring to his estate in 1786, soon united with the other in attempting the conquest of Bundelcund. The rajah Himmut seems to have had it in contemplation to establish a sovereignty elsewhere; and about the year 1787 he was actively engaged in assisting the prince Mirza Jurvaïn Buklit in raising an army; but the death of the latter, which happened suddenly in 1788, probably allowed him more leisure to attend to the other object in view. He and his associates agreed that a large portion of the territory to be conquered should be assigned to himself, and its revenue applied to the support of certain troops which he engaged to maintain in the service of Ali Bahauder. The projected invasion took place in 1789, when Ali Bahauder conquered much of the district in the name of the peshwa, of whom he rendered himself nearly independent; and in a short time the whole was subdued except some fortresses, which the Mahrattas have never been able to reduce.

Some years elapsed before the complete establishment of their authority; but an arrangement was made with the peshwa, whereby he was acknowledged lord paramount of all the conquests effected in Bundelcund by Ali Bahauder, who engaged to obey him as his sovereign, and to pay him tribute. But the latter contrived to evade both conditions; and, after being occupied fourteen years in endeavouring to subjugate the country, died in 1802, during the blockade of Callinger, which, during ten years, he had fruitlessly endeavoured to capture. Ali was succeeded by his eldest son, Shumshere Bahauder, then absent at Poonah; and Himmut Bahauder, who, to retain his own influence, had for years been exciting dissension among the different chiefs, now appointed a relation of Shumshere, the young rajah, regent of Bundelcund until his return.

A war next broke out between the British and the

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Bunder. *Mahrattas.* Himmut Bahauder endeavoured to accomplish the transference of this district to the former, while Shumshere was determined to oppose them vigorously. In September 1803 Colonel Powell crossed the river Jumna for the purpose of entering Bundelcund, and was joined by Himmut, with a body of thirteen or fourteen thousand men. The united forces, arriving on the banks of the river Cane, which passes the fort of Callinger, and falls into the Jumna near the town of Oorah, fought the army of Shumshere on the opposite side. It was numerous, occupied a great extent, and was strongly posted; but, after a short cannonade on both sides, it precipitately retreated.

At this time a proposal was made by the Mahrattas, and acceded to by the British, for the cession of a portion of the territory of Bundelcund in lieu of certain districts in the Deccan, which had been ceded to them by a former treaty. Forces were then stationed in Bundelcund for the protection of other parts; and successive engagements of a conciliatory nature were formed with Shumshere and all the rest of the chiefs, whereby the British authority was rendered paramount. Himmut Bahauder had previously secured an advantageous arrangement for himself; and his death ensuing in the year 1804, government provided for his family, and assumed possession of his territory. The troops who had been retained in his service, a kind of irregular force, now dispersed. Still, however, the tranquility of the country was liable to be disturbed; and indeed the cession of some parts of it by the Mahrattas was only nominal, as they had never been able to occupy the strongholds themselves. Thus it was judged expedient by the British to bestow a considerable tract in 1807 on a descendant of the rajah Chattersaul, who had been long dispossessed amidst contending factions, on condition of guarding the passes, and preserving his territory in peace. Other arrangements were made, conceding to the chief of Calpee, on the confines of Bundelcund, a portion of the interior, in lieu of the city and district of Calpee, and several villages on the Jumna. Meantime it became necessary to besiege the fortress of Callinger; but notwithstanding the British forces had captured many strongholds of the Indians, previously deemed impregnable, they were unsuccessful in attempting to take it by assault, and, as already observed, gained possession by the garrison retiring in the night. Its reduction proved a great accession of power, and tended materially to tranquillize the district, which had previously been incorporated with the British empire in the East, and a civil establishment constituted for the regular management of its affairs.

The possession of a country such as Bundelcund, occupying 11,000 square miles, is of considerable consequence in several respects; and it has been suggested that the revenue derived from it might be materially augmented, by assuming the direction of the diamond mines of Panah. Nevertheless the occupation of the whole does not seem to have been judged an important object, more especially as, by the arrangement above alluded to with the chief of Calpee, he was left in the enjoyment of a third part of them, to which he was originally entitled.

BUNDER, or BENDER ARRAH, or GOMBEROON, the ancient Harmozia, a fortress of Persia, in the province of Fars, situated in a barren country, in a bay of the Gulf of Ormuz. It is subject to the imams of Maskat, and is fortified with double walls. It was at one time the first seaport of Persia, and is still a place of considerable trade. The customs amount to 20,000 rupees, above L.2000 a year, for which, and the tribute of Minab, the imams accounts to the king of Persia. It is eighteen miles south-east of Bushire. Long. 56. 12. E. Lat. 27. 18. N.

BUNDER, or BENDER Reig, or Port of Sand, a town of Persia, in the province of Fars, which stands close to the eastern shore of the Persian Gulf. It is surrounded by a miserable mud wall, flanked with round towers, on which are placed three or four useless guns. This town was the seat of a venerable freebooter, Meer Mahood, whose exploits are partly related by Niebuhr; and during his life it was a place of so much strength as to resist the repeated attacks of Kurim Khan, by whom, however, it was at last taken, after a long siege. The works were razed to the ground; and the town has so much declined since that period, that it does not contain above 300 or 400 inhabitants. It is thirty-five miles north of Bushire.

BUNEL, PETER, one of the most elegant writers of his time, was born at Toulouse in 1499, and died at Turin in 1547. He left behind him some Latin epistles, *Epistole Ciceroniano Stilo Scripta*, remarkable for the elegance and purity with which they are written. Bunel, says Bayle, "was an honest man, the very person whom Diogenes wanted. His letters are written with the greatest purity, and contain curious facts." The most correct edition is that of Graverol, Toulouse, 1687, 8vo.

BUNGAY, a market-town of the hundred of Wangford, in the county of Suffolk, 107 miles from London, on the river Waveney, which divides it from the county of Norfolk, and is navigable to the sea at Yarmouth. It is a well-built town, comprising two parishes with their churches, and the ruins of an ancient monastery and of a castle. There is but little trade except on the Thursday's market. The inhabitants amounted in 1801 to 2349, in 1811 to 2828, and in 1821 to 3290.

BUNNASS, a river of Hindustan, in the province of Ajmeer, where it has its source. It is a rapid stream, about half a mile in breadth in some parts, though during the dry season not above twenty yards of this space contain water. It loses itself in the Kakraze.

BUNTING. See ORNITHOLOGY, Index.

BUNTINGFORD, a market-town of the hundred of Edwintree, in the county of Hertford, thirty-two miles from London, on the river Rib. It is situated in three different parishes. The church is very ancient, and stands nearly a mile from the town.

BUNTWALLA, a town of Hindustan, in the province of South Canara, situated on the north bank of the river Netravati, which is navigable above the reach of the tide for canoes. It contains about three hundred houses, and is fast improving, being the thoroughfare for the trade between Mysore and Canara. The inhabitants are mostly Brahmins of an inferior caste. Long. 75. 9. E. Lat. 12. 48. N.

BUNTZLAU, a circle in the Austrian kingdom of Bohemia. It extends over 1578 square miles, or 1,009,920 acres, and comprehends twenty-three cities, eighteen towns, and 1034 villages, with 57,640 houses. The inhabitants amount to 352,756. A range of lofty mountains separates this circle from the kingdom of Saxony. The chief place is New Buntzlau, on the river Iser, containing two monasteries, six churches, and about 4000 inhabitants, partly employed in making woollen goods, but chiefly in tanning leather.

BUNTZLAU, a circle in the Prussian government of Liegeitz, extending over 372 square miles, or 238,090 acres, and containing two towns and sixty-two villages, with 6965 houses and 40,074 inhabitants. It is a hilly district, the greater part being covered with woods, but very fertile in the valleys. The capital has the same name, is a fortified city on the river Bober, and a considerable place for earthen ware, linen, and calico-printing manufactures. It has two Catholic churches and one Lutheran, with 5100 inhabitants.

Bunder

Buntzlau.

Bunwoot
Bupalus.

BUNWOOT, an island about eighteen miles in circumference, lying off Pollok harbour, in Magindanao. It has few springs, but many ponds of fresh rain water. In 1775 this island was ceded to Captain Forrest for the East India Company, by the sultan of Magindanao. Long. 124. 28. E. Lat. 7. 14. N.

BUNYAN, JOHN, author of the *Pilgrim's Progress*, was born at Elstow, near Bedford, in 1628. He was the son of a tinker, and in the early part of his life a great reprobate, having served as a soldier in the parliament army; but being at length deeply struck with a sense of his sins, he laid aside his profligate courses, became remarkable for his sobriety, and applied himself to obtain some degree of learning. About the year 1655 he was admitted a member of a Baptist congregation at Bedford, and was soon after chosen their preacher; but in 1660, having been seized and tried for presuming to preach, he was sentenced to perpetual banishment, and in the mean time committed to jail, where necessity obliged him to learn to make long-tagged thread-laces for his support; and, to add to his misery, he had a wife and several children, including a daughter who was blind. In this unjust and cruel confinement he was detained twelve years and a half, and during that time wrote many of his tracts; but he was at length discharged by the humane interposition of Dr Barlow. When King James's declaration for liberty of conscience was published, he was chosen pastor of a congregation at Bedford. He at length died of a fever at London, on the 31st of August 1688, aged sixty. He also wrote an allegory, called the *Holy War*. His *Pilgrim's Progress* has been translated into most European languages; and his works have been collected together, and printed in two volumes folio. "The characteristic peculiarity of the *Pilgrim's Progress*," says an able writer, "is, that it is the only work of its kind which possesses a strong human interest. The allegory of Bunyan has been read by many thousands with tears. This wonderful performance, while it obtains admiration from the most fastidious critics, is loved by those who are too simple to admire it....In the wildest parts of Scotland the *Pilgrim's Progress* is the delight of the peasantry. In every nursery it is a greater favourite than Jack the Giant-killer. Every reader knows the straight and narrow path as well as he knows a road in which he has gone backward and forward a hundred times. This is the highest miracle of genius, that things which are not should be as though they were,—that the imaginations of one mind should become the perpetual recollections of another; and this miracle the tinker has wrought." (*Edinburgh Review*, vol. liv. p. 452.)

BUOY, in sea affairs, a sort of close cask, or block of wood, fastened by a rope to the anchor, to determine the place where the anchor is situated, that the ship may not come too near it, to entangle her cable about the stock, or the flukes of it.

Can Boors are in the form of a cone, and of this construction are all the buoys which are floated over dangerous banks and shallows, as a warning to passing ships, that they may avoid them. They are extremely large, that they may be seen at a distance; and are fastened by strong chains to the anchors which are sunk for this purpose at such places.

Cable Boors are common casks employed to buoy up the cables in different places from rocky ground.

BUPALUS, a celebrated sculptor, and native of the island of Chios, was the son, grandson, and great grandson of sculptors. He had a brother, named Athenis, of the same profession, and they flourished in the sixteenth Olympiad, being contemporary with Hipponas, a poet of an ugly and despicable figure, with whom they diverted themselves by representing him under a ridiculous form. There

were several statues at Rome executed by them; and they worked only on the white marble of the isle of Paros. Pausanias mentions Bupalus as a good architect as well as sculptor, but says nothing of Athenis.

BUPHONIA, in antiquity, an Athenian feast or ceremony, so denominated from a bullock being slain therein, with quaint formalities. From the origin of the buphonia, it may be concluded that by the laws of Attica it was forbidden to kill an ox; but it once happened, at the feast of the *diopolia*, that an ox ate the corn or cakes which had been dressed for the sacrifice, which so enraged Thaulon the priest, that he presently killed the animal and fled. On this the Athenians, dreading the resentment of the gods, and feigning themselves ignorant who had committed the fact, brought the bloody ox before the judges, where it was solemnly arraigned, tried, found guilty, and condemned; and in memory of this event, a feast was instituted under the denomination of *buphonia*, in which it was still customary for the priest to fly, and judgment to be given respecting the slaughter of the ox.

BURBOT. See ICHTHYOLOGY, *Index*.

BURCKHARDT, JOHN LUDWIG. This traveller, celebrated for his extensive journeys in the East, was descended from an ancient family in Switzerland, who had been long established at Kirchgarten, near Lausanne. His father, John Rudolph, had been tried by a French military commission on a charge of having delivered up the *tête du pont* at Hunningen to the Austrians, and, though acquitted, received such treatment from the French republican authorities as made a lasting impression on his mind, and induced him to remove his family from the territories, where their power predominated, and to establish them at Basle. He then entered into a Swiss corps in the service of England.

John Ludwig was the eighth son, and born about the year 1785. Having acquired the usual classical instruction at Basle, he was placed at the university of Leipzig; and, after a residence there of two years, according to a custom very usual with German students, of dividing the time of their academical course among several universities, he concluded his studies, and took his degree, at Göttingen. During his residence at the latter seat of learning, his talents, application, and good conduct had gained him the esteem and respect of the professors, but especially of the celebrated Blumenbach. When he resolved on proceeding to England, Blumenbach gave him a letter of introduction to Sir Joseph Banks, who, with the other members of the African Association, to whom he was introduced, accepted his offer of travelling to explore the interior of Africa. After the plan of his journey had been settled, he diligently prepared himself for it by application to those studies which were most appropriate. He passed his time partly in London and partly at Cambridge in acquiring a knowledge of astronomy, chemistry, mineralogy, medicine, and surgery. He suffered his beard to grow, accustomed himself to the dress and manners of the East, and diligently learned to read, write, and speak the Arabic language; in all which pursuits he was much assisted by Brown, who during his travels in Africa had acquired not merely a knowledge of, but an ardent attachment to, the languages and customs of Mahomedan nations.

After these preparations, and receiving his instructions from the society, he left England, and in April 1809 reached Malta, whence he proceeded to Aleppo in the following October. Being determined to acquire the Arabic language in perfection, he appeared there as a Mussulman under the name of Ibrahim Ibn Abdallah; and, during more than two years passed in that part of Asia, he had so perfected himself in the language as not to be distinguished from the natives, and acquired such accurate

Buphonia
Burchard.

Burden. knowledge of the contents of the Koran, and of the commentaries upon its religion and laws, that after a critical examination, the most learned Mussulmen entertained no doubts of his being really what he professed to be, a learned doctor of their law.

During his residence in Syria he visited Palmyra, Damascus, Lebanon, and the other parts of that interesting country, and thence repaired to Cairo in Egypt, with the intention of joining a caravan, and travelling to Fezzan, in the north of Africa. In 1812, whilst waiting for the departure of the caravan, he was induced to make a journey to the Nile, as far up as Mahass; and then, in the character of a poor Syrian merchant, he made a journey through the Nubian desert which Bruce had traversed, passing by Berber and Shendy to Suakin, on the Red Sea; whence he performed the pilgrimage to Mecca by way of Jidda. In this journey his privations and sufferings seem to have been of the severest kind. He returned thence to Cairo in a state of great exhaustion, but in 1815 travelled to Mount Sinai, whence he returned again to Cairo in June 1816, and there made preparations for his intended journey to Fezzan, and to explore the sources of the Niger.

Several hindrances prevented his prosecuting this intention, till at length, in April 1817, when the long-expected caravan prepared to depart, he was seized with an illness which ended his life. He had from time to time carefully transmitted his journals and remarks, and a very copious series of letters; so that nothing which appeared to him to be interesting in the various journeys he made has been lost. But it is much to be lamented that the life of a man so well qualified as Burckhardt should not have been prolonged, till he had been enabled to solve many of the doubts respecting the interior of Africa, which has excited the curiosity of mankind from the most remote ages.

The communications from Burckhardt have at several periods been furnished to the public in very ample forms, with appropriate maps; and much light has been thrown by them on the geography of the countries he visited, and on the manners, laws, religion, and commerce of their inhabitants. His *Journal along the Banks of the Nile from Assouan to Mahass, on the Frontier of Dongola*, was published in 1819, in 4to; and the volume contained also a description of a Journey from Upper Egypt through the Deserts of Nubia to Jidda in Arabia. To this is added an Appendix, with an Itinerary from the Frontiers of Bornou by Balr el Ghazal and Darfour to Shendy; and also notices of the country of Soudan, west of Darfour, and vocabularies of the several languages.

In 1822 a volume was published containing a Tour from Damascus in the countries of Libanus and Anti-Libanus; a *Journal of an Excursion into the Haouran in 1810*; a Journey from Aleppo to Damascus in 1812; a Journey from Damascus into the Haouran in 1811; a Journey from Damascus through the Mountains of Arabia Petrea in 1812; and a *Journal of a Tour in the Peninsula of Mount Sinai in 1816*.

In 1829 was published a posthumous volume of Travels in Arabia, in 4to (2 vols. 8vo). This is a very interesting work, containing the narrative of a Journey to Mecca and Medina during the time when the former city was the scene of the great Hadj or pilgrimage, as also the best account yet given of the Wababe power.

In 1830 appeared another volume, entitled *Manners and Customs of the Egyptians*, 4to; but this, consisting chiefly of the proverbs current among the people of Cairo, is not of equal value with his former publications. (G.)

BURDEN, or BURDON, in *Music*, the drone or bass, and the pipe or string which plays it; hence that part of

a song which is repeated at the end of every stanza is called the *burden* of it. A chord which is divided so as to perform the intervals of music, when open and undivided, is also called the *burden*.

BURDEN of a Ship is its contents, or number of tons it will carry.

BURDWAN, a district of Hindustan, in the province of Bengal, situated between the twenty-second and twenty-fourth degrees of north latitude, and on the western side of the Hooghly river. It is bounded on the north by Birboom and Ranjeshy, on the south by Midnapoor and Hooghly, on the east by the river Hooghly, and on the west by Midnapoor and Pachete. This district is about seventy-three miles long by forty-five broad, and is perhaps the best cultivated and most productive of any similar extent of territory in India; while it appears like a garden in a wilderness, being surrounded by the jungles of Midnapoor in Orissa, of Pachete, and of Birboom. Its products are grain, cotton, silk, sugar, and indigo, which it yields in great abundance, and of excellent quality. The chief towns are Burdwan, Bissunpoor, and Keerpay; and the principal rivers are the Hooghly and Dummoohad. The inhabitants are estimated at two millions, one sixteenth of whom are supposed to be Mahomedans. Gang robbery has been very prevalent here, as in all the lower districts of Bengal; but of late years it has been greatly repressed by the energy of the government.

BUREN, a circle in the Prussian government of Minden, and province of Westphalia. It extends over 262 square miles, or 167,680 acres, and contains four towns, fifty-one villages, sixteen hamlets, and 28,228 inhabitants. It is generally a very poor district, but affords some iron, lead, and salt. The chief place, from which the circle takes its name, stands on the Alme, where it joins the Allfte. Before the expulsion of the Jesuits it was the property of that order, and contains now only 1390 inhabitants.

BURFORD, a market-town of the hundred of Bampton, in the county of Oxford, seventy-three miles from London, on the river Windrush. It is celebrated as the place where an ecclesiastical synod was held in 685, to determine on the time for celebrating Easter; for a battle between Cuthred, king of the West Saxons, and Ethelbald, king of the Mercians; and for a victory by Fairfax in 1649 over the army of Charles I. The church is a large and handsome fabric, with a lofty spire. There is very little trade. The market is held on Saturday. The inhabitants amounted in 1801 to 1516, in 1811 to 1342, and in 1821 to 1409.

BURGAGE, or BURGAGE-TENURE, is where the king or other person is lord of a borough in which the tenements are held by a rent certain. A borough is distinguished from other towns by the right of sending members to parliament; and where the right of election is by burgage-tenure, that alone is a proof of the antiquity of the borough. Tenure in burgage, therefore, or burgage-tenure, is where houses, or lands which were formerly the site of houses, in an ancient borough, are held of some lord in common socage, by a certain established rent. These tenures seem to have withstood the shock of the Norman enrochments, principally on account of their insignificance, as a hundred of them put together would scarcely have amounted to a knight's fee. Besides, the owners of them, being chiefly artificers, and persons engaged in trade, could not with propriety be put on a military establishment like that founded on the tenure in chivalry; and hence the free socage in which these tenements are held seems to be a remnant of Saxon liberty, which may account for the variety of customs affecting many of the tenements held in ancient burgage.

Burdwan
Burgage.

Burgage-
holding
Bürger.

BURAGE-HOLDING, in Scotland, is the tenure by which the property in real burghs is held under the king, and is originally constituted by a charter from the crown in favour of the burgh, the effect of which is, that every proprietor within the burgh holds his property directly of the king as superior, for the *reddendo*, now merely nominal, of watching and warding, or "service of burgh used and wont." The title of a disponee to a burgage property proceeds on a resignation made by delivery of staff and baton in the hands of the magistrates, in virtue of a procuratory granted by the vassal last infet, and followed by an infestment given by the magistrate in favour of the disponee, without the intervention of any precept or charter by progress. The title of an heir in burgage subjects is sometimes completed by a precept of *clare constat* and infestment, but more frequently by a single act called a cognition and seisin. The proper vassal in burgage-holding being the whole community, which, in a legal sense, never dies, the ordinary casualties are not exigible; and the nature of the tenure also properly excludes such infestations, although a base infestment in an annual rent out of burgage property, given by a baillie of the burgh as baillie in that part, and the town-clerk, as a common notary, has been held as effectual. No widow's tierce is due from burgage subjects.

BURGAU, a city, the capital of a magistracy of the same name, in the circle of the Upper Danube, of the kingdom of Bavaria. The district extends over sixty-five square miles, and contains, besides the city, one market-town, with thirty-five villages and 11,408 inhabitants. The city is situated on the river Mindel, has an ancient palace or castle, and 2330 inhabitants.

BURGEBRACH, a town, the chief place of a magistracy of the same name, in the circle of the Upper Maine, and kingdom of Bavaria. The judicature extends over 195 square miles, and contains, besides the town, fifty-eight villages, with 13,430 inhabitants. The town is small, and has only 114 houses.

BÜRGER, GODFREY AUGUSTUS, a celebrated German poet, born on the 1st of January 1748, at Wolmerswende, a village in the principality of Halberstadt, where his father was Lutheran minister. In his childhood he discovered little inclination to study; the Bible and the Canticles alone had any attraction for him: these he knew by heart; and his first attempts in versification were imitations of the Psalms, which, notwithstanding their defects, gave proofs of feeling and a correct ear. It is to this first direction of his studies that we are to attribute the biblical phrases, the allusions to Christianity, and the theological style, if we may be allowed the expression, which we find even in his amatory poetry. He was fond of solitude, and indulged in all the romantic sentiments which deserts and the gloom of forests inspire. From the school of Aschersleben, where his maternal grandfather resided, and which he quitted in consequence of a severe chastisement which had been inflicted on him for composing an epigram, he was sent to the institution at Halle; but at neither of these places did he make any very sensible progress. He discovered a taste only for the lessons in prosody and versification which were given to the scholars of the institution, in which his friend Göttingk was a class-fellow with him, who afterwards distinguished himself by his epistles and songs, and who has lamented the premature death of Bürger in an elegy to his memory. In 1764 Bürger, who was intended for the clerical office, began to attend the course of lectures given by the professors of the university. Klotz, a learned classical scholar, admitted him of the number of young people whose talents he took a pleasure in cultivating; but this society appears not to have produced the same favourable effect on the moral character of Bürger as on his genius. His conduct pre-

judiced his grandfather Bauer against him; and it was with difficulty that he obtained from him some further assistance, with permission, in the year 1768, to repair to Göttingen to prosecute the study of the law instead of that of theology. This change did not make him more regular in his studies; his manners became corrupted; and his grandfather withdrew his protection. Bürger contracted a number of debts; and his situation would have become altogether desperate had it not been for the assistance of some friends. An association, memorable in the annals of German literature, had just been formed at Göttingen: it reckoned among its members Boje, Biesler, Sprengel, Hölty, Müller, Voss, the two Counts Stolberg, C. F. Cramer, and Leisewitz. Bürger was admitted into it. All of these persons were versed in the Greek and Roman literature, and, at the same time, all of them idolized Shakespeare. The Germans are the only foreigners who seem to relish or understand the merits of this great genius in the same degree as his own countrymen profess to do; and they do not seem to like his genius the less on account of the irregularities objected to it by other nations. Bürger, in a great measure, owed his style to the enthusiasm which he showed, in common with his literary friends, for our celebrated tragic writer. The *Reliques of Ancient English Poetry*, published about this time by Dr Percy, gave an additional impulse to the direction which his mind had taken, and suggested to him some of the productions which his countrymen admire the most. Of all his friends, Boje was the one who exercised the greatest influence over him in the choice and management of his compositions. He taught him to make easy verses by taking pains; and it is to his severe observations that the poetical stanza of Bürger owes a great part of that elegance and roundness which characterize it. To the same friend he was indebted also for some improvement in his circumstances, which, till the year 1772, had been very uncomfortable. On the recommendation of Boje he was appointed to the collectorship of Alvensleben, in the principality of Calenberg. The winter following, some fragments of a ghost story, which he heard a peasant girl singing by moonlight, caught his imagination, and his *Leonora* appeared, which soon became popular in all parts of Germany. Soon after the publication of this ballad, a circumstance occurred to give him still greater confidence in his talents. Going a journey to his native place, he one evening heard the schoolmaster of the village, in the room next to that in which he lay, reading to the assembled audience collected at the inn the ballad of *Leonora*, which had just come out, and which was received with the liveliest marks of admiration. This proof of success flattered him more than all the compliments of his friends. About this time he married a Hanoverian lady, named Leonhart; but this union proved only a source of bitterness to him, an unhappy attachment to her younger sister having sprung up in his heart. The loss of a sum of money, of which his grandfather had made him a present, was the first commencement of the embarrassment of his circumstances. The taking of a large farm, which he did not know how to manage, increased it; and the dismissal from his place, which he was obliged to submit to in 1784, in consequence of suspicions (probably ill-founded) raised against the fidelity of his accounts, gave the finishing stroke to his misfortunes. He had, a little before, lost his wife; and it is but too certain that her death was hastened by the culpable passion which Bürger cherished in his heart. Left with two children, and reduced to the inconsiderable emoluments of *The Almanach of the Muses*, published at Göttingen, which he had edited since 1779, he removed to this city, with a view to give private lessons there, and in the hope of obtaining from the

Bürger.

Bürger.

Hanoverian government a professor's chair in the belles-lettres. Five years afterwards, the title was conferred on him, but without a salary; yet this was the only public recompense obtained during his whole life by a man who was one of the favourite authors of his nation, and who, while yet young, had enjoyed the highest reputation. Scarcely were the ashes of his wife cold when he espoused her sister Molly, whose name his poems have made but too famous, and who had embittered the existence of his first wife; but he did not long enjoy the happiness after which he had sighed. She died in childhood in the beginning of 1786. From that moment his own life only lingered on; and the fire of his genius seemed extinguished with the passion which had so long nourished it. He had scarcely strength enough, in the intervals of his dejection, to finish his *Song of Songs*, a sort of dithyrambic or nuptial hymn, intended to celebrate his second marriage, and which is a strange mixture of frantic passion, religious devotion, and the most bombastic expression. It was the last production of Bürger. Having studied the philosophy of Kant, he had an idea of deriving some advantage from it at Göttingen, where it had not yet been taught. He undertook to explain it in a course of lectures, which were attended by a great number of young people. The satisfaction which the university expressed to him for two cantatas which he composed in 1787, at the period of the fifty years' jubilee of this illustrious institution, and his nomination to the situation of professor extraordinary, reanimating his spirits. Fortune appearing to smile on him once more, he formed the design of marrying again, in order to provide a mother for his children. During one of the moments when he was most occupied with this idea, he received a letter from Stuttgart, in which a young woman, whose style indicated a cultivated mind, and her sentiments an elevated and feeling heart, after describing to him, with enthusiasm, the impression which his poetry had made upon her, offered him her hand and heart. Bürger spoke of the thing at first only in jest, but the information which he received respecting the character, the fortune, and personal accomplishments of his correspondent having excited his curiosity, he took a journey to Stuttgart, and brought back with him a wife who embittered and dishonoured the rest of his days. In less than three years he saw himself under the necessity of obtaining a divorce from her; and the ruin of his health aggravated the absolute disorder of his finances. Confined to a small chamber, the favourite poet of Germany wasted the remainder of his strength in translations ordered by foreign booksellers; but sickness and grief soon deprived him even of this resource, and he must have died in the most frightful state of want, if the government of Hanover had not extended some kindness to him. He died on the 8th of June 1794, of a disorder of the bowels, which he had never believed to be dangerous.

Bürger is only remarkable as a lyric poet. He has tried all the different species of this class of the productions of genius; but he succeeded eminently only in the song and the ballad. We shall, perhaps, characterize his genius sufficiently by saying that his imagination is more fresh than rich,—that he has more sensibility than elevation, more naïveté and good nature than delicacy or taste. His style sparkles by its clearness, its energy, and from an elegance which is rather the result of labour than of natural grace; he possesses, in short, all the qualities which please the multitude. Allowing the title of poet only to those whose writings were calculated to become popular, he early habituated himself to reject whatever appeared to him not sufficiently intelligible and interesting to all classes of readers. Always clear and forcible, he is never either low or trivial; and if at certain times there appears

a want of selection and care in the details, yet the sentiments are uniformly noble, and the moral intention of the majority of his pieces altogether irreproachable. Some breathe the loftiest piety and the purest love of virtue. Wieland said of him (see the *German Mercury*, 1778), that in composing his poem entitled *Mannerkeuschheit* (on Chastity), Bürger had deserved better of the present and future generations, than if he had written the finest treatise of morality. This little piece has been inserted in most of the collections of hymns for the use of the Lutheran church.

There are three editions of Bürger's works. The first two appeared in his lifetime, in 1778 and 1789, in 3 vols. 8vo; and the third, after his death, was published by his friend Ch. Reinhard, in 4 vols. 1796. All three were printed at Göttingen. The last contains some posthumous pieces, and miscellanies in prose. We must confine ourselves to a short notice of those for which their merit or the singularity of the subject has procured the greatest degree of celebrity. 1. A translation, or rather an imitation, of the *Vigil of Venus* (*Peregrillum Veneris*). It is a fine piece of poetic diction and rhythmical harmony. 2. *Leonora*, a romance; which belongs to the class which Bürger himself called the *epic lyric*. This story is borrowed from a popular tradition, of which the traces are to be found in the different countries of the north. *Leonora* was translated into Danish in 1788, six times into English, by Stanley, Pye, Spencer, Taylor, &c., and from English into French by De la Madelaine in 1811. The translation by Mr Spencer is accompanied with engravings after designs by Lady Diana Beauclerc. Two German composers have set it to music. Bürger often appeared very ill contented with the vast success of this production of his youth. He preferred a great number of his other poems, and was himself the first to blame the puerile trick of the play upon sounds which he has here indulged in. 3. *The Minister's Daughter of Taubenheim* is the story of the seduction and tragical end of a young girl. There are in this, as in the other productions of the same author, some objectionable details, but the whole leaves a deep impression. 4. *The Inhuman Huntsman*. 5. *The Song of the Brave*; in which the heroism of a peasant, who saves a family from the fury of the waves, is related with admirable feeling. 6. *The Song of Songs, conceived at the foot of the altar*. This is a hymn or ode in praise of his Molly. 7. *A Træstie of the Fable of Jupiter and Europa*. This is a piece of humour of the most clumsy kind, and in a taste the most wretched, yet it had a great run when it first appeared. 8. *A translation in iambic verse, of the books of the Iliad*. The choice of the measure is by no means happy. He was accordingly requested ironically, to set about translating *Anacreon* into hexameters, when he had finished his version of Homer into German iambs. 9. *An excellent Translation of Shakspeare's Macbeth*. 10. *Pieces of Poetry and of Rhetorical Prose*. He had begun to write critical observations on his own works, with equal severity and sagacity; but he has only left some fragments of this work. 11. He was editor of the Göttingen *Almanach of the Muses*, from 1779 to 1794. Vetterlein, Politz, and Engel, have published a selection of the poetry of Bürger, with notes; and celebrated composers, such as Schulz and Reichardt, have set a great number of his songs to music. Bürger's third wife, whom German biography has thought worthy to have her name associated with his on account of her taste for literature, and particularly poetry, is author of several pieces in verse inserted in the collections. The one having for its title *The Rallery of a Mother*, is sufficient to prove her poetical talent.

BURGESS, an inhabitant of a borough or walled town,

Burgess.

Burgess
Burglen-
genfeld.

or one who possesses a tenement therein. Anciently, burgesses were held in great contempt, being reputed servile, base, and unfit for war; so that the gentry were not allowed to intermarry in their families, or fight with them, but in lieu thereof to appoint champions.

BURGESS is now ordinarily used for the representative of a borough in parliament. Burgesses are supposed to represent the mercantile part, or trading interest, of the nation; and they were formerly allowed, by a rate established in the reign of Edward III. two shillings a day as wages. The right of election of burgesses depends on several local charters and customs; and by 3 Geo. III. c. 15, no freeman, except such as claim by birth, servitude, or marriage, is entitled to vote, unless he has been admitted to a freedom twelve months before. Burgess, in Scotland, is a member of the corporation of a burgh, admitted either by the charter of erection, or by birth, as being the son of a burgess, or by serving an apprenticeship to a burgess, or by marrying the daughter of a burgess, or by election by the magistrates of the burgh. The heir of a burgess has a right to hereditary movables.

BURGGRABE properly denotes the hereditary governor of a castle or fortified town, chiefly in Germany. The word is compounded of *burg*, town, and *graf* or *grave*, count. The burgraves were originally the same with what is otherwise called *castellans* or *comites castellani*; but their dignity was considerably advanced under Rodolph of Hapsburg. Before his time they were ranked only as counts, and below the princes, but under him they began to be esteemed as on a footing with princes. In some parts the dignity has much degenerated.

BURGH, a market-town of the Lindsay division of the hundred of Candleshoe, in the county of Lincoln, distant a hundred and thirty-six miles from London. The country around it is a rich tract of marshy land, in which the best oxen are fattened. The market is held on Thursday. The inhabitants amounted in 1801 to 716, in 1811 to 769, and in 1821, to 903.

BURGHROTE signifies contribution towards the building or repairing of castles or walls, for the defence of a borough or city. By a law of King Athelstan, the castles and walls of towns were to be repaired, and burghrote levied every year within a fortnight after rogation days. No person whatever was exempt from this service, and even the king himself could not exempt a man from burghrote; yet in after-times exemptions appear to have been frequently granted, inasmuch that the word burghrote came to denote, not the service, but the liberty or exemption from it.

BURGHRECHE, or BURGHRECH, a fine imposed on the community of a town or burgh, for a breach of the peace among them.

BURGHMOTE, the court of a borough. By the laws of King Edgar, the burghmote was to be held thrice in the year; by those of Henry I. twelve times.

BURGULARY, or NOCTURNAL HOUSE-BREAKING (*burgi latrocinium*), which by the ancient English law was called *hunesucken*, a word also used in the law of Scotland, but in a somewhat different sense, has always been looked upon as a very heinous offence. The definition of a burglar, as given by Sir Edward Coke, is, "a thief by night breaketh and entereth in a mansion-house with intent to commit a felony." Burglary is a felony at common law, but within the benefit of clergy.

BURGLENGENSELD, a magistracy in the circle of Regem, in the kingdom of Bavaria, which comprehends 323 square miles, and contains 24,500 inhabitants. The city from which it takes the name stands in a most romantic situation, and in the neighbourhood of others of similar beauty, on the river Nab. It contains about 1500 inha-

bitants, who are chiefly occupied in the manufacture of fire-arms, and in the tanning of leather.

BURGMMASTER, BURGERMASTER, BURGERMASTER, or BURGMESTER, the chief magistrate of the great towns in Flanders, Holland, and Germany. The power and jurisdiction of the burgmester are not the same in all places, every town having its particular customs and regulations. The word is formed from the two Flemish words *borger*, burgess, or citizen; and *master*, master. Some express it in Latin by *consul*, others by *senator*. *Burgermaster*, in Holland, answers to *alderman* and *sheriff* in England.

BURGMMASTER. See ORNITHOLOGY, Index.

BURGOS, a province of Castile, in the north of Spain, bounded on the north by the ocean; on the east by Biscay, Alava, and Soria; on the south by Segovia; and on the west by Palencia, Valladolid, Toro, and Asturias. Its extent is 7822 square miles. It is a lofty territory, intersected by ranges of mountains, between which are extensive and fruitful valleys. The soil is for the most part sandy, intermixed with stones, but in some parts is of a good loamy description. The loftiest mountains are in the north, called the Cantabrian, which are covered with woods; whilst the Sierra Reynos and others are bare, and almost utterly barren. The valleys in the province are watered by various small streams, and their tributary rivulets, the waters of all which are collected in part by the Ebro, which conveys them to the Mediterranean Sea, and in part by the Douro, which runs to the Atlantic Ocean. The climate is generally temperate, the summers being cool, and, except on the loftier parts, the winters not sufficiently cold. The atmosphere in the interior is commonly clear, but on the coast moist and foggy. The agriculture, though ill conducted, produces a sufficiency for the population. The breeding of cattle is the most profitable branch of rural industry; and the province supplies its neighbours with many cows, sheep, goats, horses, mules, and asses. Some silk, flax, and hemp are produced, but in very small quantities. There are scarcely any manufactures except of the domestic kind, or upon a very small scale. The inhabitants at the last correct census, that of 1803, amounted to 470,588; and it is probable they have increased since that period. The province contains five cities, 583 towns, and 1118 villages. The only places of more than 5000 inhabitants are Burgos, Logroño, and Santander.

BURGOS, a city, the capital of the province of the same name, in Spain. It is situated on a hill, around which the river Arlanzon winds. It is fortified, but its chief defence is the castle, which checked the progress of the British army. It is the see of an archbishop, whose cathedral is large and handsome, though antique. It has, besides, fourteen other churches, and twenty-four religious houses. It is the seat of the military academy and an ecclesiastical seminary, and contains about 11,000 inhabitants. Long. 3. 46. 14. W. Lat. 42. 20. 59. N.

BURGUNDIONES, a part or branch of the Vindili or Wandili, placed by Cluverius about the Warta, a river of Poland; though the conjectures as to the seat of this people are doubtful. They afterwards removed to Cisalpine Germany, and at length to Celtic Gaul, and gave name to the duchy and county of Burgundy.

BURGUNDY, called also Burgundy Proper, or Lower Burgundy, formerly a province in the east of France, lying on the west of Franche-Comté, and on the south of Champagne. It now forms the departments of the Yonne, Côte d'Or, Saône et Loire, and Ain, under which several heads Burgundy will be found described.

BURHAMPOOR, a town of Hindustan, in the province of Bengal, situated on the east bank of Bhagirathi or Cosimbazar river, five miles from Moorshedabad. Here is stationed a brigade of troops in commodious cantonments,

Burgomaster
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Burial
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which consist of a fine range of buildings in an open lawn. Long. 89. 14. E. Lat. 24. 3. N.

BURIAL, the interment of a deceased person. In almost all countries the rites of sepulture have been looked upon as a debt so sacred, that those who neglected to discharge it were thought infamous. Hence the Romans called them *justici*, and the Greeks *νεκροφύλακες*, *νεκροφύλακες*, words implying the inviolable obligation which nature has laid upon the living to perform the obsequies of the dead. Nor need we wonder that the ancient Greeks and Romans were extremely solicitous about the interment of their deceased friends, seeing they were strongly persuaded that their souls could not be admitted into the Elysian fields till their bodies had been committed to the earth; and if it happened that they never obtained the rites of burial, they were excluded from the happy mansions for the term of a hundred years. For this reason it was considered as a duty incumbent upon all travellers who happened to meet with a dead body in their way, to cast dust or mould upon it three times; and of these, one portion at least was cast upon the head. The ancients likewise considered it as a great misfortune if they were not laid in the sepulchres of their fathers; for which reason the ashes of those who died in foreign countries were usually brought home and interred with those of their ancestors. But notwithstanding the great care in the burials of the dead, there were some persons whom they thought unworthy of the last office, and to whom therefore they refused it; namely, public or private enemies; such as betrayed or conspired against their country; tyrants, who were always looked upon as enemies to their country; villains guilty of sacrilege; such as died in debt, whose bodies belonged to their creditors; and offenders who had suffered capital punishment.

Of those who were allowed the rites of burial, some were distinguished by particular circumstances of disgrace attending their interment. Thus persons killed by lightning were buried apart by themselves, being thought odious to the gods; those who wasted their patrimony forfeited the right of being buried in the sepulchres of their fathers; and those who were guilty of self-murder were privately deposited in the ground, without the accustomed solemnities. Among the Jews the privilege of burial was denied only to self-murderers, who were thrown out to rot upon the ground. In the Christian church, though good men always desired the privilege of interment, yet they were not, like the heathens, so concerned for their bodies as to think it any detriment to them if either the barbarity of an enemy or some other accident deprived them of this privilege. The primitive Christian church denied the more solemn rites of burial only to the unbaptized, to self-murderers, and to excommunicated persons who continued obstinate and impenitent in contempt of the censures of the church.

The place of burial among the Jews was never particularly determined. They had graves in the town and country, upon the highways, in gardens, and upon mountains. Among the Greeks the temples were made repositories for the dead in the primitive ages; yet the general custom in later ages with them, as well as with the Romans and other heathen nations, was to bury their dead without their cities, and chiefly by the highways. Among the primitive Christians burying in cities was not allowed for the first three centuries, nor in churches for many ages after. Dead bodies were first deposited in the atrium or church-yard, and in the porches and porticoes of the church; and hereditary burying-places were forbidden till the twelfth century.

BURIAS, one of the Philippine Isles, about forty-three miles in length by nine in average breadth. It is surrounded with shoals and rocks, and was formerly possessed

by a colony of piratical cruisers from Magindanao. Long. 123. E. Lat. 13. N.

BURIATS, **BURATY**, or **BRATSKY**, a tribe of Tartars, now brought under the jurisdiction of Russia, and widely dispersed throughout Siberia, in the government of Irkutsk, wherein their numbers are computed from the capitation tax at about sixty thousand. Their features are of a genuine Tartar cast, resembling those of the Kalmycks, though they are not quite so flat, the nose being somewhat higher, and the countenance more open. They themselves trace their origin to the Kalmycks, and not to the Moguls. They are entirely pastoral in their habits, and depend for their subsistence chiefly on their flocks. The principal occupations of the men are riding and hunting; and they are dexterous archers as well as skillful horsemen. They are esteemed honest and sincere, and both sexes are extremely courteous. They are very ignorant, and debased by the grossest paganism. The residence of this tribe is chiefly around the banks of the lake Baikal, and those of the rivers Angora and Lena.

BURIDAN, JOHN, a native of Bethune, in Artois, was one of the most celebrated philosophers of the fourteenth century. He taught in the university of Paris with great reputation, and wrote commentaries on logic, morality, and Aristotle's metaphysics. Aveninus relates that he was a disciple of Ockam; and that, being expelled Paris by the power of the realists, which was superior to that of the nominalists, he went into Germany, where he founded the university of Vienna.

BURKE, EDMUND, an illustrious writer, orator, and statesman, was born in Dublin on the 1st of January 1730. His father was an attorney, first in Limerick, and afterwards in Dublin. Young Burke received the rudiments of his education at Castletown Roche. He was afterwards put under the tuition of Abraham Shackleton, a quaker of some celebrity in Ballitore, in the county of Kildare. Committed to the care of a master so well qualified for the business of instruction, he applied to his studies with commendable assiduity, and in this seminary laid the foundation of his knowledge of the ancient languages, and probably also imbibed that love of liberty which so often pointed his oratory, inflamed his passions, animated his sentiments, and in his best days secured him an almost unequalled reputation.

Here several years of his life were spent; and the attachment of the master and the gratitude of the pupil reflect equal honour on both. The former lived to see his scholar attain a considerable degree of reputation; and the latter, on his part, was accustomed to spend a portion of his annual visit to Ireland at Ballitore. He also kept up an epistolary correspondence with him, which lasted till the death of his tutor.

From this provincial seminary Edmund was sent to the university of Dublin. But here he does not appear to have distinguished himself much either by application or talents: his character as a student was merely negative. He received a degree, however, before he departed, and during this period he commenced author, by writing some political essays.

Mr Burke now addicted himself to other pursuits, particularly logic and metaphysics, and is said to have planned a refutation of the systems of Berkeley and Hume. But whilst thus employed in treasuring up the means of attaining a species of celebrity which far different evocations prevented his afterwards aspiring to, he was not attentive to the grand object of obtaining a suitable settlement in life. His family was not opulent, and as he already panted after independence, he repaired to the metropolis, and enrolled his name as a student of the Inner Temple.

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&
Burke.

Burke.

It appears from his speeches, his writings, and his conversation, that he studied the outlines of our municipal jurisprudence with attention; but it may be doubted whether he ever entered deeply into the study of law. The versatility of his talents and his avocations were, indeed, but little calculated for that dull and plodding perseverance which can alone lead to an intimate knowledge of our laws; and even if he had been gifted with the necessary application, both time and opportunity were wanting; for it is well known that at this period of his life the *res angusta domi* did not permit the student to dedicate his attention solely to this, or indeed to any other single pursuit. The exhausted state of his finances called frequently for a speedy supply; and, instead of perusing the pages of Bracton, Fleta, Littleton, and Coke, he was obliged to write essays, letters, and paragraphs, for the periodical publications of the day. But if these pursuits diverted his attention from graver studies, they acquired him a facility of composition, and a command of style and of language, which proved eminently serviceable to him in the course of his future life. About this period he became a candidate for a vacant chair in the university of Glasgow, but he was unsuccessful.

His health, however, became at length impaired, and a nervous fever ensued. This circumstance induced him to call in the aid of Dr. Nugent, a countryman of his own, and a man of amiable manners, though not of extensive practice. This gentleman, who was himself an author, readily discovered the source of Mr Burke's malady, and, by removing him from books and business to his own house, soon effected a cure; an event which is said to have been hastened, if not entirely completed, by a physician of another kind, the accomplished daughter of Dr Nugent, whose delicate attentions to the invalid appear to have made a deep impression on his heart. In fact this lady afterwards became Mrs Burke; and the circumstance was particularly fortunate for him, as her disposition was mild and gentle, and she continued throughout a long series of years, and many vicissitudes of fortune, to soothe and tranquillize passions always violent, and often tumultuous.

After some time ostensibly spent in the study of law, Mr Burke seems to have determined once more to endeavour to distinguish himself as an author; and accordingly he took advantage of the death of a celebrated nobleman to compose a work after the manner of that distinguished writer, so that, by exaggerating his principles, he might be enabled to bring them into contempt; but this effort proved unsuccessful, and the treatise in question was for a long time consigned to oblivion, nor would it have ever been heard of, had it not been resuscitated by his future fame. But the success of another performance made ample amends for this disappointment. His *Essay on the Sublime and Beautiful* attracted a great degree of notice, and acquired him considerable celebrity as a man of letters. In addition to the profits of the publication, he is said to have received a present of a hundred pounds from his father; but his circumstances must have been greatly embarrassed about this time, as he was obliged to sell his books—a measure which nothing but the extremity of distress could have forced a man of letters to resort to.

This work having an immediate relation to taste, excited a desire in Sir Joshua Reynolds, even then at the head of his profession, to become acquainted with Mr Burke; and a friendship ensued which continued uninterrupted during the life of the painter, and was unequivocally testified by a handsome bequest in his will. Dr Johnson also sought and obtained his friendship; and he now became the constant frequenter of two clubs, composed of some of the most celebrated men of that day. One of these met at the Turk's Head Tavern in Gerrard

Street, and consisted of Dr Johnson, Mr (afterwards Sir Joshua) Reynolds, Dr Goldsmith, Mr Topham Beauclerc, Dr Nugent, Sir John Hawkins, Mr Bennet Langton, Mr Chamier, Mr Garrick, and Mr Burke. The other assembled at the St James's Coffee-house, and, besides many of the above, included Mr Cumberland, Dr Douglas, bishop of Salisbury, Dr Bernard, dean of Derry, Mr Richard Burke, Mr William Burke, Mr Hickey, and others. Dr Goldsmith, who was Mr Burke's contemporary at Dublin College, was member of both, and wrote the epitaphs of those who composed the latter.

A literary work on a new plan, first suggested in 1750, and by some attributed to the Doddeleys, but by others to Mr Burke, became for some time a considerable source of emolument to him. This was called the *Annual Register*, a publication which soon obtained considerable celebrity, and of which he had for several years the superintendence.

But Mr Burke was at length called off from his literary pursuits by avocations of a far different kind. A gentleman who afterwards obtained the name of Singlespeech Hamilton, having been appointed secretary to the lord-tenant of Ireland, invited his friend Mr Burke to accompany him thither, an offer which he readily accepted; and although he acted in no public station, and performed no public service, while he remained in that country, he was rewarded with a pension of three hundred pounds per annum, which the conduct of Mr Hamilton soon afterwards compelled him to throw up.

On his return to England he amused himself, as usual, with literary composition; and a series of essays written by him in a newspaper, which at the time enjoyed great celebrity, attracted the notice of the Marquis of Rockingham; in consequence of which Mr Fitzherbert, father of Lord St Helen's, introduced him to that nobleman. From this moment he became a public man, and dedicated his studies, his eloquence, and his pen, almost exclusively to politics. Meanwhile Lord Rockingham, having proved more compliant than the Earl of Chatham, came into power; and when seated on the treasury bench, he selected Mr Burke as his private secretary;—an office of no power, and very little emolument, but one which naturally leads to both. As it was now necessary that he should have a seat in parliament, although it can scarcely be supposed that he was legally qualified in point of property, he applied to Lord Verney, patron of Wendover, and was returned for that borough, which was then dependant on his lordship, being principally occupied by his tenants.

Having thus obtained a seat in 1765, he prepared to qualify himself for his new situation. He had all the necessary talents, and was only deficient in knowledge of the forms of business, and in facility of expressing his sentiments before a public audience. The first of these he mastered by sedulous attention; and as to the second, if we are to credit those who were intimately acquainted with him at this period of his life, he overcame all difficulties by a previous initiation elsewhere. In short, he had acquired celebrity at the Robinhood before he attempted to speak in the British senate, and vanquished an eloquent baker ere he began to cope with the greatest orators this nation has ever produced.

Holding a confidential place under the Rockingham administration, he of course supported all its measures. A former ministry, anxious to increase its influence by means of increased imposts, had conceived the idea of taxing America through the medium of a parliament in which she was not represented, and attempted to carry this into effect by means of the famous stamp act; but the Americans, alarmed at what they conceived to be a flagrant violation of every principle of the English constitution, made

Burke.

Burke. such a spirited resistance to the measure, that it was abandoned, and the Rockingham party readily consented to the repeal. Under the pretext, however, of vindicating the honour of the crown, they unfortunately proposed and carried the declaratory act, by means of which, although the original scheme was abandoned, the principle on which it had been built was asserted anew, and a foundation laid for all the miseries, which afterwards ensued. But if the Rockingham administration deserved no great credit on this occasion, it is entitled to considerable praise on account of other parts of its conduct; for it repealed the cider act, procured a declaration of the House of Commons condemning the seizure of papers, and carried a resolution against general warrants. On retiring from office, however, they did not carry much popularity along with them; Lord Chatham and his friends, who in some measure monopolized the public favour, were intrusted with the management of affairs for a short time; and it is extremely probable that they would have sunk into neglect had not America been driven into open resistance.

It now fell to the lot of Lord North to enforce the scheme which the Grenville party had projected, which the Rockingham administration had by an unaccountable blunder at once recognised and annihilated, and which they afterwards manfully and at length successfully opposed. This forms the most brilliant epoch of Mr Burke's life. He was hostile to the expulsion of Mr Wilkes, an act which the House of Commons afterwards rescinded from its records. On the application of the dissenters for relief, he espoused their cause, and expressed his resentment in very animated terms against that misguided policy which permitted all those not within the pale of the establishment to enjoy liberty less by right than by connivance. But perhaps the noblest part of his conduct consisted in his steady and uniform opposition to the American war, and his marked hostility to the abettors of the struggle. His speech against the Boston Port Bill was one of the most brilliant specimens of oratory that had ever been displayed in the British senate; and on the 19th of April 1774, on a motion for the repeal of the tea duty, he discovered such talents, that an old and respectable member exclaimed, "Good God, what a man is this! How could he acquire such transcendent powers?" And when, in reply to another who had said that the Americans were our children, and it was horrible to revolt against their parent, the orator uttered the following passage, the whole house was electrified: "They are our children, it is true; but when children ask for bread, we are not to give them a stone. When those children of ours wish to assimilate with their parent, and to respect the beauteous countenance of British liberty, are we to turn to them the shameful parts of our constitution? Are we to give them our weakness for their strength; our opprobrium for their glory; and the slough of slavery, which we are not able to work off, to serve them by their freedom?"

The city of Bristol, the merchants of which had become rich by the commerce with America, were likely to suffer by its interdiction. This consideration alone rendered many of them hostile to the proceedings of the ministry; but nobler and more exalted motives actuated the bosoms of some, particularly the quakers, dissenters, and other sectaries, who were moved by zeal against oppression, and a love of liberty imprinted on their minds by a constitution which until then had remained inviolate. Gratified by the exertions of Mr Burke in behalf of civil and religious freedom, they put him in nomination for the city, and sent into Yorkshire to request his immediate personal attendance. After consulting with his patron concerning an offer so flattering and unexpected, accompanied at the same time with assurances most punctually fulfilled,

that he should be put to no expense whatever, he immediately set out for the west of England, and found that no less than three candidates had started before him. The first was Lord Clare, afterwards Lord Nugent, one of the former representatives, whose unpopularity was such that he soon discovered the necessity of resigning all his pretensions; and of the two others, Mr Cruger and Mr Brickdale, who remained in the field, the former, like Mr Burke himself, was averse to a rupture with America.

The new candidate did not appear on the hustings until the afternoon of the sixth day's poll, on which occasion he addressed the electors in a very able speech, admirably calculated for the occasion; expressing a modest diffidence of his own abilities, and a high opinion of the important trust they were assembled to confer: boldly declaring himself hostile to a contest with America; and asserting that England had been rendered flourishing by liberty and commerce, the first of which was dear to his heart, whilst the latter had been a favourite object of his studies, both in its principles and details. This harangue was well received by the electors; the contest proved propitious to his wishes; and when the sheriffs had notified, at the close of the poll, that he was elected, he delivered the most brilliant address on the occasion that had ever been heard within the walls of the city.

Mr Burke returned from his new constituents to parliament with increased vigour, reputation, and zeal. The Earl of Chatham, notwithstanding his reputation for wisdom, having failed in an attempt to adjust the troubles of the colonies by means of a conciliatory bill introduced by him into the House of Peers for that purpose, the obstinacy of the ministry now became apparent to every one. But this circumstance, which would have appalled an inferior man, did not, however, discourage the member for Bristol from making a similar attempt in another place; and accordingly, on the 22d March 1775, he brought forward his celebrated thirteen propositions, which were intended to close the fatal breach, and heal all the differences between the mother country and her colonies. His plan, on this occasion, embraced not only immediate conciliation, by a repeal of the late coercive acts, but also the creation of an independent judicature, and the regulation of the courts of admiralty. The whole, however, was quashed by a large majority on the side of the minister who moved the previous question.

Mr Burke had hitherto chiefly distinguished himself in opposition to the measures of others; but in 1780 he himself stood forth as the original author of a scheme which soon engaged the attention of the public, and actually appeared big with the most important results. When he found ministers obstinately persisting in a disastrous war, and perceived that the people began to bend beneath the weight of the taxes for its support, it struck him as at once advantageous and politically expedient to attempt to diminish the public burdens and the number of adherents of the court. Accordingly, on the 11th of February, he brought in a bill for the regulation of his majesty's civil establishments, and of certain public offices; for the limitation of pensions, and the suppression of sundry useless, expensive, and inconvenient places; and for applying the monies saved thereby to the public service. This scheme was manifestly founded on the late reforms which had taken place in France; for, by an edict of the king, registered in the parliament of Paris, it appeared that he had suppressed no less than four hundred places in his household by one regulation. The orator judiciously adverted to this event, and endeavoured to make use of it as an incentive to a similar attempt here, calling in national rivalry by way of an inducement to consent to this sacrifice on the part of the crown. To this bill the minority did

Burke. not at first give much opposition; and indeed the mover of it contrived to soften those features which appeared harsh to them. But notwithstanding this, it did not prove successful during Lord North's administration; and when it was at length carried, it was much modified and altered.

Parliament was dissolved in 1780, but Mr Burke was not re-elected for Bristol. This is said to have made a deep impression on the mind of the orator; but it must have been obliterated by the important events which speedily ensued; for the minister now tottered on the treasury bench, being abandoned by many of his staunchest supporters, and but little confident in his own schemes, all of which had proved eminently unsuccessful. Meanwhile the opposition having increased to a considerable degree, unceasingly assailed him, until at length, on the 28th March 1782, Lord North assured the House of Commons that his administration was at an end.

The day had now arrived when the ministry and opposition were to change places, and Mr Burke, whose services had been so conspicuous, was made a privy councillor, and invested with the lucrative appointment of paymaster-general of the forces. He was thus at length enabled to enforce his plan of political economy, tendered before in vain; and the board of trade, the board of works, the offices of third secretary of state, treasurer of the chamber, cofferer of the household, the lords of police in Scotland, the master of the harriers, the master of the stag-hounds, the six clerks of the board of green cloth, and the paymaster of the pensions, were abolished. But when the reins of government were confided to the hands of the Marquis of Lansdown, then Earl Shelburne, this event gave such offence to those who wished to place the Duke of Portland at the head of affairs, that Mr Fox, Lord John Cavendish, and Mr Burke, immediately resigned.

In the mean time the critical state of the English East India Company had long agitated the public mind, and become occasionally a subject of discussion in parliament. The seizure, imprisonment, and confinement of Lord Pigot, by a faction in the council of Madras—the conduct of Mr Hastings in respect to several of the native powers—and the grand question of sovereignty, relative to the territorial possessions of the Company in Asia—had all at different times excited the attention of the nation. Accordingly, when Mr Fox and his friends came into power, he brought in a bill to remedy the various abuses in the government of British India. Of this bill Mr Burke is well known to have been in a great measure the author; and when it was introduced into parliament, he defended its principles and provisions with all the zeal of a parent. Notwithstanding much opposition both within and without, this celebrated bill was carried triumphantly through the House of Commons; but in the House of Peers it experienced a far different fate, and with it fell the power and consequence of its authors, framers, and supporters.

In the course of the next year, 28th February 1785, he made a splendid speech relative to the nabob of Arcot's debts; and depicted one of his creditors, who had taken an active share in the late elections, "as a criminal who long since ought to have fattened the region kites with his offal; the old betrayer, insulter, oppressor, and scourge of a country (Tanjore), which had for years been an object of an unremitted, but unhappily an unequal struggle, between the bounties of Providence to renovate, and the wickedness of mankind to destroy." But there appeared to Mr Burke to be a still greater delinquent; and accordingly he resolved to sacrifice, if possible, the powerful offender himself at the shrine of national vengeance. This was Mr Hastings; and, soon after his arrival in England, the orator gave notice of his intentions. On the 17th of February 1785 he opened the accusation by a most elo-

quent speech, in which he depicted the alleged crimes of the ex-governor-general in the most glowing and animated colours. This trial, however, turned out in the event very different from what had been expected; whilst the length of it failed not to involve both Mr Burke himself and his party in reproach.

During the debate on the commercial treaty with France, 23d January 1787, Mr Burke, then member for Malton, exhibited an undiminished versatility of talents, and pointed his ridicule with no common success at Mr Pitt, who, according to him, contemplated the subject with a narrowness peculiar to limited minds—"He seems to consider it," said he, "as an affair of two little counting-houses, and not of two great nations. He seems to consider it as a contention between the sign of the *fleur-de-lis* and the sign of the old *red lion*, for which should obtain the best custom."

The next public event of importance in which we find Mr Burke engaged, occurred in consequence of his majesty's indisposition. On this occasion he took an active part in the debates of the House of Commons, and is supposed to have penned a letter for one, and a speech for another branch of the royal family. When Mr Pitt moved his declaratory resolutions relative to the provisional exercise of the royal authority, Mr Burke attacked him with much asperity of language, and was particularly severe on the manner in which the royal assent was to be given to all future acts of parliament. The men who held most of the high places under the government were treated as jobbers, old hacks of the court, and the supporters and betrayers of all parties; and he declared that it was a mock crown, a tinsel robe, and a sceptre from the theatre, lacerated over and unreal, which were about to be conferred on the prince of Wales.

The opposition, diminished indeed by a few occasional desertions, had hitherto acted as a great public body, supposed to be united in general principles for the common welfare and prosperity of the state; but the French revolution thinned their ranks, dispelled their consequence, and, by sowing jealousy between the chiefs, spread consternation and dismay among their followers. It was on the 2d of March 1790, when Mr Fox moved for leave to bring in a bill to repeal the corporation and test acts, that this disunion became evident; and soon afterwards Mr Burke declared that his honourable friend and he were separated in their politics for ever.

The ministry now seemed anxious to provide for their new associate; and he, on his part, certainly appeared deserving of some remuneration at their hands, for he had abandoned all his old friends, and not a few of his old principles. In addition to this, his *Reflections on the Revolution in France* had afforded some degree of countenance, and even popularity, to the measures of administration; and, not content with his own exertions, he had enlisted his son on the same side, and even sent him to Coblenz. The royal munificence at length gratified his warmest wishes; for by a warrant, dated 24th September 1795, he received a pension, made to commence from the 5th January 1793, of £1,200 for his own life and that of his wife, on the civil list; whilst two other pensions of £2500 a year for three lives, payable out of the four and a half per cent. fund, dated 24th October 1795, were made to commence from the 24th July 1793. Honours as well as wealth now seemed to await him, for he was about to be ennobled, when the untimely death of an only child put an end to his dreams of ambition, and contributed not a little to hasten his own, which occurred at his house at Beaconsfield on the 9th of July 1797.

Thus died, in the sixty-eighth year of his age, Edmund Burke, one of the greatest orators, statesmen, and authors

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of his age; a man whose name will long continue to be celebrated; and one who, had he fallen during the meridian of his fame and character, would have scarcely been considered as second to any man, either of ancient or modern times.

BURKITT, WILLIAM, a celebrated commentator on the New Testament, was born at Hitcham in Northamptonshire 25th July 1650, educated at Pembroke Hall, Cambridge. He entered young upon the ministry, having been ordained by Bishop Reynolds; and the first employment which he had was at Milden in Suffolk, where he continued twenty-one years a constant preacher, first as curate, and afterwards as rector of that church. In the year 1692 he had a call to the vicarage of Dedham in Essex, where he continued to the time of his death, which happened in the latter end of October 1703. He was a very pious and charitable man; made great collections for the French Protestants in 1687 and the years immediately following; and by his great care, pains, and charges, procured a worthy minister to go and settle in Carolina. Among other charities, by his last will and testament he bequeathed the house in which he lived, with the lands thereunto belonging, as a habitation for the lecturer who should be chosen from time to time to read the lecture at Dedham. Besides his commentary on the New Testament, written in the same plain, practical, and affectionate manner in which he preached, he wrote a volume entitled *The Poor Man's Help and the Rich Man's Guide*.

BURLEIGH. See CECIL.

BURLESQUE, a species of composition, which, though a great engine of ridicule, is not confined to the ridiculous alone; for it is clearly distingiſhable into burlesque that excites laughter merely, and burlesque that excites derision or ridicule. A grave subject, in which there is no impropriety, may be brought down by a certain colouring so as to be risible, as in *Virgil travestied*; the author laughing at every turn in order to make his readers also laugh. The *Lutrin* is a burlesque poem of the other sort, laying hold of a low and trifling incident in order to expose the luxury, indolence, and contentious spirit of a set of monks. Boileau, the author, turns the subject into ridicule by dressing it in tho heroic style, and affecting to consider it as of the utmost dignity and importance. Though broad ridicule is the poet's aim, he always carries a grave face, and never once betrays a smile. The opposition between the subject and the manner of handling it is what produces the ridicule; and therefore, in a composition of this kind, no image professedly ludicrous ought to be admitted, because such images destroy the contrast.

Though the burlesque that aims at ridicule produces its effects by elevating the style far above the subject, yet the poet ought to confine himself to such images as are lively and readily apprehended. A strained elevation, soaring above the ordinary reach of fancy, makes not a pleasant impression. The mind is soon disgusted by being kept long on the stretch. Machinery may be employed in a burlesque poem, such as the *Lutrin*, *Dispensary*, or *Hudibras*, with more success and propriety than in any other species of poetry; for burlesque poems, though they assume the air of history, give entertainment chiefly by their pleasant and ludicrous pictures. It is not the aim of such compositions to raise sympathy, for which reason a strict imitation of nature is not necessary; and hence, the more extravagant the machinery in a ludicrous poem, the more entertainment it affords.

BURLINGTON, or BARNIMOR, a sea-port town of England, in the East Riding of Yorkshire, situated on a bay called Burlington Bay, formed by Flamborough Head, which is about five miles distant, nearly north-east. It is situated about a mile from the shore; but there is another

portion of it, named Burlington Quay, situated directly on the coast, formed by a pier which extends a considerable way into the bay. Considerable trade is carried on here, and the burden of the shipping belonging to the port amounts to about 6000 tons. A weekly market is held here, and two annual fairs. Burlington and Burlington Quay contain about 4000 inhabitants. Long. 0. 8. W. Lat. 54. 8. 30. N.

BURLINGTON, a post-town of Vermont, and capital of Chittenden county. It is the most considerable commercial town of Vermont, and possesses a university, a court house, a jail, a bank, an academy, and three places of public worship. The trade is principally with New York. The population in 1820 was 2111. Long. 73. 15. W. Lat. 44. 27. N.

BURMAN, PETER, a philologer and critic of high reputation, was born at Utrecht on the 26th of June 1668. His father, Francis Burman, professor of divinity in that university, was the son of a German clergyman, whom the destructive war of the Palatinate had driven from Frankenthal; his mother was Mary the daughter of Abraham Heydan, professor of divinity in the university of Leyden. Thus he was doubly connected with men of letters, and various members of the same family distinguished themselves by their writings. While he was yet in the eleventh year of his age, he had the misfortune to lose his pious and learned father; but this loss, great as it certainly was, appears to have been in a very considerable degree supplied by the assiduity, prudence, and piety of his mother. He was educated in the public school of Utrecht, where his progress must have been very rapid, for at the age of thirteen he became a student in the university. For several years he attended the lectures of Grævius, a professor of great learning and eminence, who ably blended Greek with Latin erudition, and to whose private friendship, joined to his public instructions, Burman seems to have been in a great measure indebted for that strong predilection which he continued to evince for philological studies. Here, among other departments of literature, he assiduously cultivated Latin composition, and he gradually attained to no mean proficiency both as an orator and a poet.

Burman's original destination was for the legal profession; and after having devoted some years to literature, he next applied himself to the study of the law. The university of Utrecht was then highly distinguished as a school of jurisprudence, and among other great names, it could boast of Noodt, one of the ablest civilians of modern times. He attended the lectures of this professor, and likewise those of Van Muyden and Van de Poll, who both taught the municipal as well as the civil law; nor did he neglect the lectures of H. Cocceii on the feudal law, and on the treatise of Grotius *De Jure Belli ac Pacis*. A further proof of his assiduity he exhibited in a dissertation *De Vicinia Hereditatum*, which he publicly defended with great applause.

It is a common practice for the more liberal and inquisitive students of Holland and Germany to pass from one university to another, and the practice has an obvious tendency to improve the youthful mind, by removing local prejudices, and by introducing a new current of refined thought. Burman accordingly spent a year at Leyden, where he studied philosophy under Volder, but in the mean time did not neglect his favourite pursuits of classical erudition. He attended the lectures of the younger Gronovius on some of the Greek writers, together with those of Ilyckius on Tacitus. Of this Latin historian, the latter professor was about that period engaged in preparing a new edition, with a separate volume of animal versions. Returning to the university of Utrecht, he continued to

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cultivate the friendship of Grævius, and to profit by his instructions and advice. In the month of March 1688 he took the degree of doctor of laws, having previously written and defended a learned dissertation *De Transactionibus*. "The attainment of this honour," as Dr Johnson has remarked, "was far from having upon Burman that effect which has been too often observed to be produced in others, who, having in their own opinion no higher object of ambition, have elapsed into idleness and security, and spent the rest of their lives in a lazy enjoyment of their academical dignities. Burman aspired to further improvements, and, not satisfied with the opportunities of literary conversation which Utrecht afforded, travelled into Switzerland and Germany, where he gained an increase both of fame and learning."

But having made choice of a profession, it had now become necessary to enter upon a new course; and on his return to his native city, he applied his talents and learning to the practice of the law. We are informed that he pleaded various causes with much force and eloquence; nor will this account appear improbable to those who are acquainted with the vigour and decision displayed in his ordinary strain of composition. On the first of December 1691 he was appointed receiver of the tithes which were originally paid to the bishop of Utrecht; this was an office of considerable credit, and was usually bestowed upon persons of some distinction. While engaged in these occupations, he married Eve Clotterboke, the daughter of a burgomaster of Briel, much commended for her beauty and accomplishments. She became the mother of ten children, eight of whom died at an early age, and only two sons survived their father. This learned advocate might have risen to great eminence in his profession; but as the love of letters was his predominant passion, he gladly availed himself of an opportunity of leaving the bar and returning to the university. A recommendation from his friend Grævius to the magistrates of Utrecht procured him the professorship of eloquence and history, to which was afterwards added the professorship of the Greek language, and that of politics. His first appointment was that of an extraordinary professor, or of a professor *extra ordinem*. He took possession of his chair on the 10th of December 1696; and on that occasion pronounced an oration *De Eloquentia et Poetice*. His academical labours, which were thus so various, must likewise have been very formidable; but being a man of an excellent capacity, and of unwearied application, he ably performed whatever he had undertaken, and gradually acquired a high and merited reputation. His lectures attracted a numerous auditory, and his multifarious publications rendered his name familiarly known wherever ancient learning was successfully cultivated. The most serious labours of his life were devoted to the illustration of the Roman classics, and in this department he had but few rivals.

Soon after his appointment to the professorship, he published a collection of letters from learned men, and chiefly relating to topics of learning: "Marquardi Gudii et doctorum Virorum ad eum Epistolæ; quibus accedunt ex bibliotheca Gudiana clarissimorum et doctissimorum Virorum, qui superiore et nostro seculo floruerunt, et Claudii Saravii, Senatoris Parisiensis, Epistolæ ex eadem

bibliotheca auctiores; curante Petro Burmanno." Ultrajecti, 1697, 4to. About the same period he prepared an edition of Phædrus. Amst. 1698, 8vo. This edition was twice reprinted; and after an interval of nearly thirty years, he published the same poet with a new commentary. He next produced "Q. Horatius Flaccus. Accedunt J. Rutgersii Lectiones Venuinæ." Traj. Batav. 1699, 12mo. Burman has prefixed a dedication and preface, but the only notes which occur are those of Janus Rutgersius, who died in the year 1625, after having established no mean reputation as a scholar by the publication of his *Varie Lectiones*. These editions were followed by a learned dissertation, entitled "Zus. Keraäres, sive Jupiter Fulgurator in Cyrrhestura Nummia." Traj. Bat. 1700, 4to. Resuming the illustration of the Latin poets, he now prepared an edition of Valerius Flaccus. Ultraj. 1701, 12mo. This edition includes the notes of N. Heinsius, who had himself published the text in 1650; but after a long interval, Burman edited the same poet with more ample illustrations, which were partly derived from various other critics. Leide, 1724, 4to. He was chosen rector of the university in 1703, and again in 1711.

Grævius, one of the chief ornaments of the university of Utrecht, died in the year 1703, and his grateful pupil honoured his memory by a funeral oration, which is ably and affectionately written, and contains an interesting sketch of his life and character. His great and valuable collection of writers on Roman antiquities is well known among scholars. He engaged in a more extensive undertaking, a collection of writers on the history and antiquities of Italy; and after his decease, the charge of inspecting its progress devolved upon Burman, who contributed nine different prefaces. "Thesaurus Antiquitatum et Historiarum Italiae." Lugd. Bat. 1704-25, 45 tom. fol. The book is described in the title as "tomis x. vel voluminibus xlv. distinctus;" each volume consisting of several parts, which amount to the size of volumes. Burman likewise wrote the preface to an edition, undertaken by Grævius, of Gruter's "Inscriptiones Antiquæ totius Orbis Romani." Amst. 1707, 2 tom. fol.

His next literary enterprise was an edition of a prose writer, Petronius Arbitr. Traj. ad Rhēn. 1709, 4to. The learned editor was attacked in an anonymous publication, consisting of a few pages, and bearing the title of "Burmanniana, sive Calumniam Petri Burmanni in Collegas et Populares Specimen." Amst. 1710, 12mo. These calumnies are collected from his annotations on Petronius. His most elaborate edition was very unfavourably noticed by Le Clerc,* who by the freedom of his strictures in various publications, more particularly in his different *Bibliothèques*, had excited the resentment of many eminent members of the republic of letters. Of grammarians and verbal critics he spoke with habitual contempt, and thus increased the offence that was merely personal. Some of his philological mistakes had been exposed by Perizonius, but he was attacked by Burman in a more ferocious manner. His literary delinquencies were fiercely discussed in the preface to Petronius; and his contemptuous review of the edition was followed by a volume entitled "Le Gazetteier Menteur, ou Mr. Le Clerc convaincu de Mensonge et de Calomnie, par Pierre Burman." Utrecht, 1710, 12mo. Whatever may have been the extent of the

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* Bibliothèque Choisie, tom. xix. p. 351.—Le Clerc commences his review in the following terms: "Je ne mets pas ici cette édition, pour en rendre compte au public. Il n'y a rien qui mérite son attention." The rest of the article is written in the same strain of disparagement, nor has the author confined himself to his adversary's literary character. The subsequent passage refers to his morals: "Je ne parlerai pas de l'insipiscence qu'il y a à parler ainsi, pendant l'accusé de l'avoir débouché." P. 362. The learned professor has adverted to this charge, but, as it appears to us, not in such clear and direct terms of disavowal as might naturally have been expected from a man conscious of his innocence. (Burman, *Gazetteier Menteur*, p. 24.) Le Clerc ascribes to him a satire against himself, published the year 1703, in the form of a Latin dialogue between Spudius and Goralus; and in the manner in which Burman speaks of it seems to justify his suspicions.

Burman. provocation, and it was by no means inconsiderable, the spirit of this work is not to be commended. Burman's edition was long afterwards attacked in a separate volume, written by some anonymous author, whose animosity was not equalled by his learning.¹ "Chrestomathia Petronio-Burmanna; sive Cornu-copie Observationum eruditissimarum et ante plane inauditarum, quas vir illuminatissimus, rerum omnium, et multarum præterea aliarum, peritissimus, Petrus Burmannus concessit in Petronium Arbitrum, scriptorum sanctissimum. Accessit Specimen Latinitatis novæ; Romanis inægnitæ; e Notis Petri Burmanni ad Petronium." Florentiæ, 1733, 8vo. Although the work thus bears the imprint of Florence, the typography is apparently Dutch. Another edition of Petronius appeared after the death of the indefatigable editor. Lugd. Bat. 1743, 4to. Le Clerc had published his unfortunate edition of Menander and Philémon in the year 1709; and in the course of the ensuing spring Dr Bentley, under an assumed name, transmitted his *Emendationes* to Burman, who lost no time in communicating to the public such a morsel of criticism. Traj. ad Rhen. 1710, 8vo. Under his own name, he prefixed a preface of thirty-four pages, in which he assailed Le Clerc with extreme virulence, and enumerated many errors which the author had left unnoticed. Not satisfied with relieving his spleen in this manner, he added a poetical address to the Muses of the injured poets, in which he endeavoured to condense the essence of his vituperation. Of the spirit of this effusion the reader may be enabled to judge from a brief specimen:

Scilicet hæc nostris serrata infamia seclis
Prodigia, et nullis monstris pianda sercis.

Burman soon afterwards published a compendium entitled "Antiquitatum Romanarum brevis Descriptio." Ultraï, 1711, 8vo. His early study of jurisprudence was not without its advantages in those departments of literature to which he devoted himself with such persevering energy. His knowledge of the civil law he found of frequent use in illustrating the Latin classics; and he published an elaborate and valuable work which bears a reference to law as well as history, "De Vectigalibus Populi Romani Dissertatio." Ultraï, 1714, 8vo. Of this dissertation the original sketch had appeared in 1694; and he lived to publish an edition greatly improved, and combined with his *Jupiter Fulgurator*. Leidæ, 1734, 4to.

"In 1714," says Dr Johnson, "he formed a resolution of visiting Paris, not only for the sake of conferring in person, upon questions of literature, with the learned men of that place, and of gratifying his curiosity with a more familiar knowledge of those writers whose works he admired, but with a view more important, of visiting the libraries, and making those enquiries which might be of advantage to his darling study. The vacation of the university allowed him to stay at Paris but six weeks, which he employed with so much dexterity and industry, that he had searched the principal libraries, collated a great number of manuscripts and printed copies, and brought back a great treasure of curious observations. In this visit to Paris he contracted an acquaintance, among other learned men, with the celebrated Father Montfaucon, with whom he conversed, at their first interview, with no other character than that of a traveller; but their discourse turning upon ancient learning, the stranger soon gave such proofs of his attainments, that Montfaucon declared him a very uncommon traveller, and confessed his curiosity to know his name; which he no sooner heard, than he rose from his seat, and, embracing him with the utmost ardour, expressed his satisfaction at having seen the man whose productions of various kinds

he had so often praised; and, as a real proof of his regard, offered not only to procure him an immediate admission to all the libraries of Paris, but to those in remoter provinces, which are not generally open to strangers, and undertook to ease the expenses of his journey by procuring him entertainment in all the monasteries of his order. This favour Burman was hindered from accepting by the necessity of returning to Utrecht, at the usual time of beginning a new course of lectures, to which there was always so great a concourse of students, as much increased the dignity and fame of the university in which he taught."

When his talents and learning had thus procured him a high and well-earned reputation, the death of Perizonius left a vacancy in the professorship of history, the Greek language, and eloquence, in the university of Leyden; and Burman had the honour of being nominated the successor of a man who had occupied a very conspicuous place among the scholars of the age. He was distinguished by the acuteness of his intellect, and the solidity of his judgment; he was equally skilled in Greek and Roman literature, and with his critical skill he united a masterly knowledge of the most abstruse departments of ancient history. Burman, who was no unworthy successor, took possession of his chair on the 2d of July 1715, and then pronounced an inaugural oration. "De publici Humanioris Discipline Professoris proprio Officio et Numere." He was afterwards appointed professor of the history of the United Provinces, and likewise of poetry; and to all these functions was finally added the office of keeper of the university library. He was twice chosen rector of the university, namely, in 1719 and in 1731.

In the midst of these academical toils, which would have been more than sufficient for a person of ordinary application, he still found leisure for the preparation of elaborate editions of Latin classics, and, among the rest, for an edition of Velleius Paterculus. Lugd. Bat. 1719, 8vo. It was reprinted after the death of the editor. Lugd. Bat. 1744, 8vo. From this ancient historian he made a transition to an ancient rhetorician, and completed an edition of the works of Quintilian. Lugd. Bat. 1720, 3 tom. 4to. The last volume is occupied with the declamations ascribed to that writer, and with those of Calpurnius Flaccus. A pompous edition of Quintilian was afterwards produced by Capperonnier (Paris, 1725, fol.); and as Burman thought himself treated with less than due respect, he took an ample revenge in a work entitled "Petri Burmanni Epistola ad Claudium Capperonnierum, Theologum Licentiatum, Diaconum Ambianensem, et Græcæ Lingue Professorem, de nova ejus M. Fabii Quintilianæ de Institutione Oratoria Editione." Leidæ, 1726, 4to. Among other branches of learning, the Parisian professor has betrayed his ignorance of the Roman law, and on this account is severely chastised by his unrelenting adversary. But in the mean time Burman had superintended an edition of Justin, which is without a commentary, but contains an excellent preface. Lugd. Bat. 1722, 12mo.

His editorial labours were next bestowed upon a modern author, whose fame is nearly classical. An elaborate edition of Buchanan had been published by Ruddiman in the year 1715. The value of his annotations was very generally acknowledged, but the narrow and pitiful prejudices of a Jacobite frequently entangled his judgment; and every subject which bore to politics any reference, however remote, was viewed through a dim medium. The political tendency of his preface and notes was so far from being agreeable to the admirers of Buchanan, that a Whig

¹ "In qua voluit errorum graviorum arguere Burmannum, ipse, dum reprehendere voluit, gravissime sæpe lapsus, risum præbuit." (Fabricii *Bibliotheca Latina*, tom. ii. p. 160. edit. Ernesti.)

Burman. association was speedily formed at Edinburgh, for the express purpose of vindicating their favourite author in a new edition of his works. Their efforts however proved abortive, and the task of editorship devolved into more able hands. Arrested by the frequent and wide variation between the author and his *jure divino* editor, Burman had nearly been induced to relinquish his undertaking, and to advise his printer Langerak to procure assistance from Scotland, where the authenticity of the facts could best be ascertained. Of the new edition projected at Edinburgh he was likewise apprized; though it does not appear, as some writers pretend, that the associated critics made him a voluntary offer of private assistance. The printer however urging him to proceed without waiting for this vindicatory edition, he at length republished the works of Buchanan, together with Ruddiman's preface, notes, dissertation, and other appendages.¹ The annotations which he himself subjoined are almost entirely philological. His other engagements did not permit him to undertake the task of correcting the press; and accordingly his edition is somewhat less accurate than that of his predecessor. The general value of Ruddiman's labours he acknowledges in terms of due respect; but he occasionally rejects his particular opinions in a manner which that learned man was disposed to regard as contemptuous; and some of his expressions relative to British literature, and to the native country of Buchanan, were such as could not easily be forgotten. Two years afterwards when Ruddiman edited the Latin poems of Dr Pitcairne, he eagerly embraced an opportunity of asserting the honour of his native country; and the same topics were yet fresh in his recollection when he resumed his long labours at the venerable age of eighty-one.

Of the epistolary correspondence of literary men, Burman was a curious and diligent collector. At a much earlier period of his life he had published the epistle of Gadius and other scholars; and he now prepared a more ample and voluminous work, which appeared under the title of "Sylloge Epistolarum a Viris illustribus scriptarum." Leide, 1727, 5 tom. 4to. This collection, which forms a great repository of literary anecdote and critical disquisition, is occasionally illustrated with the notes of the editor. In the course of the same year, he completed the printing of a work which holds a very distinguished place among his learned labours, namely, his edition of the works of Ovid. Amst. 1727, 4 tom. 4to. Like several of his other editions of the classics, it contains not merely his own notes, but likewise those of various commentators. Ovid was evidently one of his favourite authors, and he has bestowed much care and attention in the adjustment of the text, as well as in its illustration. With regard to the text, his chief guide was Nicolaus Heinsius, a most able critic in Latin poetry. Burman had formerly published a small edition without a commentary. His next edition, *cum notis variorum*, was that of the "Poetæ Latini Minores." Leide, 1731, 2 tom. 4to. This curious collection was succeeded by an edition, equally elaborate, of the works of Suetonius. Amst. 1736, 2 tom. 4to. After another short interval followed "M. Annæi Lucani Pharsalia, cum commentario Petri Burmanni." Leide, 1740, 4to. In the preface to this publication, he speaks of Bentley with some degree of asperity. They were both men of great eminence in classical literature; and although they were both of the same insatiable temper, the friendly relations between them had been of long duration. Some suspicions and jealousies had however intervened, in consequence of

their having each projected an edition of Lucan at a much earlier period; and the breach had been rendered irreparable, by Burman's decisive measure of subjoining Dr Hare's *Epistola Critica* to his fourth edition of Phædrus.²

But the labours of this indefatigable scholar were now drawing to a close. His health had originally been vigorous, and those who have the slightest acquaintance with his history must be aware that he was capable of enduring great and continued toil. His temperate mode of living, and his attention to bodily exercise, long contributed to preserve a healthful constitution; but a scorbutic disease, incidental to that climate, having supervened, he found himself unable to take his usual walks, or other recreation, and was at last afflicted with many painful symptoms of a decayed frame and shattered nerves. While he languished in a state of hopeless decay, he had the honour of receiving a letter from Bignon, keeper of the royal library at Paris, accompanying a copy of the printed catalogue, transmitted to him by his majesty's command. This mark of royal favour might possibly cast a faint gleam of earthly comfort on his bed of sickness; but he now required consolation from a higher source, and with a due mixture of fervour and humility he appears to have approached the fountain of living waters. His religious opinions had either been misunderstood or misrepresented; and he felt a commendable solicitude to remove this erroneous impression, by the most unequivocal declaration of his hopes in the mercy of God through the mediation of Jesus Christ. In this devout frame of mind he closed a long and active life, on the 31st day of March 1741, in the seventy-third year of his age.

At the period of his death, he had made great progress in a new edition of Virgil, and it was afterwards completed by his learned nephew, who bore the same name with himself. Amst. 1746, 4 tom. 4to. To the younger Burman we are likewise indebted for the collective edition of his poems, which appeared under the following title: "Petri Burmanni Poematum libri quatuor, nunc primum in lucem editi, curante Petro Burmanno Juniore." Amst. 1746, 4to. His orations were collected by another editor, Nicolaus Bondi: "Petri Burmanni Orationes, antea sparsim editæ, et ineditis auctæ. Accedit Carminum Appendix." Hagæ Comitum, 1759, 4to. Of the Latin language Burman possessed a masterly knowledge, and in verse as well as prose he writes with vivacity and energy; but he is less scrupulous in his diction than some more recent members of the same university, especially Ruhnkenius and Wyttenbach. He is entitled to the praise of a skillful versifier; and his elegiac poems are sufficient to evince that he had not studied Ovid in vain. His orations, which are eighteen in number, had been delivered on various occasions of academical solemnity, and several of them contain a large infusion of verse. The collection is closed by a funeral oration, written by his colleague, H. Oosterdyk Schlacht, from which we have borrowed most of our notices respecting his personal history; but our account of his writings is necessarily derived from other sources. In this enumeration of his posthumous works, it remains to be mentioned that his annotations on Claudian were printed in his nephew's edition of that poet.

The character of Burman is ably and impartially delineated by Dr Johnson. "He was a man of moderate stature, of great strength and activity, which he preserved by temperate diet, without medical exactness, and by allotting proportions of his time to relaxation and amusement, not suffering his studies to exhaust his strength, but

¹ Georgii Buchanani Opera omnia. Lugd. Bat. 1725, 2 tom. 4to.

² Phædrus, Augusti Liberti, Fabularum Æsopiarum libri quinque, cum novo commentario Petri Burmanni. Leide, 1727, 4to.

Burman.

relieving them by frequent intermissions; a practice consistent with the most exemplary diligence, and which he that omits will find at last that time may be lost, like money, by unseasonable avarice. In his hours of relaxation he was gay, and sometimes gave way so far to his temper, naturally satirical, that he drew upon himself the ill-will of those who had been unfortunately the subjects of his mirth; but enemies so provoked he thought it beneath him to regard or to pacify; for he was fiery, but not malicious, disdainful dissimulation, and in his gay or serious hours preserved a settled detestation of falsehood.¹ So that he was an open and undisguised friend or enemy, entirely unacquainted with the artifices of flatterers, but so judicious in the choice of his friends, and so constant in his affection to them, that those with whom he had contracted familiarity in his youth had for the greatest part his confidence in his old age.

"His abilities, which would probably have enabled him to have excelled in any kind of learning, were chiefly employed, as his station required, on polite literature, in which he arrived at very uncommon knowledge, which however appears rather from judicious compilations, than original productions. His style is lively and masculine, but not without harshness and constraint, nor perhaps always polished to that purity which some writers have attained. He was at least instrumental to the instruction of mankind, by the publication of many valuable performances, which lay neglected by the greatest part of the learned world; and, if reputation be estimated by usefulness, he may claim a higher degree in the ranks of learning than some others of happier elocution or more vigorous imagination."²

Such was the personal and literary character of Burman, as it presented itself to the sagacious observation of this distinguished writer. His name however is less favourably known to the readers of English poetry, where it is repeatedly used to denote whatever is dull and pedantic. Pope, who was not himself a very profound scholar, endeavoured to restore a sort of equilibrium by disparaging the attainments of those who were most conspicuous for their erudition. Bentley is supposed to have excited his spleen by bestowing a too scanty measure of praise on his translation of Homer; nor did the poet neglect any opportunity of directing the edge of his satire against "that awful Aristarch," and those who successfully cultivated similar studies. The following verses occur in the *Dunciad*, b. iv. v. 235.

How parts relate to parts, or they to whole,
The body's harmony, the beaming soul,
Are things which Kuster, Burman, Wasse, shall see
When man's whole frame is obvious to a flea.

If to his other qualifications Pope had added one half of the critical learning possessed by Bentley, Kuster, Burman, or Wasse, he would have found himself in a better condition for writing notes on Homer. Mallet, who was anxious to recommend himself to the favour of so great a poet, aimed his shafts in the same direction. His poem *Of Verbal Criticism* contains the subsequent passage:

Such the choice anecdotes, profound and vain,
That store a Bentley's and a Burman's brain:
Hence Plato quoted, or the Stagyrte,
'To prove that fuscæ ascends, and snore is white;
Hence much hard study, without sense or breeding,
And all the grave impertinence of reading.

Dr Armstrong, a contemporary poet, has indulged in a

similar vein of sarcasm; nor do we feel much inclination Burman to commend these lines in his *Art of Preserving Health*, b. iv. v. 52.

The strong-built pedant, who both night and day
Feeds on the coarsest fare the schools bestow,
And crudely fattens at gross Burman's stall,
O'erwhelm'd with phlegm lies in a droopy down'd.

The injustice and absurdity of such censures as these it would here be idle to expose. If we admit the value of the ancient classics, we must also admit the expediency of their being rendered intelligible; and how this could have been effected without the intervention of critics and philologists, it would not perhaps be so easy to discover. Bentley, Burman, and many other verbal critics who might be enumerated, were possessed of uncommon talents, as well as erudition; and the ingredients which enter into the formation of an able commentator on the classics, are more rare and more numerous than some individuals may be apt to imagine.

Of the two surviving sons of Burman, the elder, named Francis, made choice of a military life, and obtained promotion in the army. His brother Caspar, who betook himself to the profession of the law, was elevated to the bench, and was elected a deputy to the states general. He was likewise a man of letters, and published several works, which illustrate the civil and literary history of his native country. "Analecta Historica de Hadriano VI. Pontifice Maximo." Traj. ad Rhen. 1727, 4to. "Trajectum eruditum, Virorum Doctrina illustrium, qui in Urbe Trajectina, et Regione Trajectensi nati sunt, aive ibi habitant, Vitas, Faia, et Scripta exhibens." Traj. ad Rhen. 1738, 4to. He is also the author of a work in the Dutch language, published in 1750-1 under the title of *Utrechtse Jaarboeken*, and extending to three volumes. He died on the 22d of August 1755.

His grandfather Francis Burman, who has already been mentioned as professor of divinity at Utrecht, published various works on theology.³ He was born at Leyden in 1632, and died at Utrecht in 1679. His son Francis was born at Utrecht in 1671, became professor of divinity in that university in 1715, and died in 1718. He was the author of different works, written in the Latin and Dutch languages. His son John Burman, M.D. was born in 1707, was appointed professor of botany at Amsterdam, and died in 1790. He evinced much zeal in his own branch of science, and published several works on botany. Nicolas Laurens Burman, M.D. his son, and his successor in the botanical chair, was born in 1734, and died in 1793, after having produced some works in his own department. Francis Burman, the brother of John, was the third individual of the same name and family who held the professorship of divinity at Utrecht.⁴

But a more conspicuous member of the same remarkable family, was his other brother Peter Burman. On the 19th of October 1714 he was born at Amsterdam, where his father was then a minister. When only four years of age he lost his father, and the care of his education devolved upon his uncle, who communicated to him his own ardent love of classical learning. His academical studies he completed at Utrecht, where in 1734 he took the degree of doctor of laws, having previously written and defended a dissertation *De Jure Annulorum aureorum*, which has been thought worthy of being reprinted in the collection of Oelriehs.⁵ In 1736 he was nominated professor of elo-

¹ Of his own habits of life, Burman has favoured us with some account in his *Gastlier Mentor*, p. 164.

² Johnson's Works, vol. iv. p. 489.

³ Casp. Burmanni Trajectum eruditum, p. 50.

⁴ Thesaurus Disertationum juridicarum in Academiis Belgicis habitarum, vol. ii. tom. i. p. 199.

⁵ Biographie Universelle, tom. vi. p. 333.

Burnet. quence and history in the university of Franeker, in the room of Wesseling, who had been removed to Utrecht. The chair of poetry was in 1741 added to his other appointments; but in the course of the following year he accepted of an invitation to the Athenæum of Amsterdam, where he became professor of history, eloquence, the Greek language, and poetry, keeper of the public library, and visitor of the Latin schools. In his literary character he bore a considerable resemblance to his more celebrated uncle, and was evidently a man of extensive learning.¹ He published several detached orations, and other tracts, and an ample collection of his Latin poems. "Petri Burnmanni Secundi Poematum libri quatuor." Lugd. Bat. 1774, 4to. "Carminum Appendix." Lugd. Bat. 1779, 4to. He edited several of the classics on a plan similar to that commonly adopted by his uncle. We have already mentioned the edition of Virgil, completed by his learned labour, and must now continue the enumeration of his classical publications. "Anthologia veterum Latinorum Epigrammatum et Poematum, sive Catalecta Poetarum Latinorum." Amst. 1759-73, 2 tom. 4to. "Aristophanis Comædiæ undecim Græce et Latine." Lugd. Bat. 1760, 2 tom. 4to. "Claudii Claudiani Opera." Amst. 1760, 4to. "Ciceronis (vel incerti auctoris) Rhetoricorum ad Herennium libri quatuor, et de Inventionem libri duo." Lugd. Bat. 1761, 8vo. "Propertii Elegiarum libri IV." Traj. ad Rhen. 1780, 4to. This last work, which he did not himself bring to a conclusion, was conducted through the press by Van Santen, an elegant and correct scholar, who, under the name of Santenius, is well known to those who are acquainted with the literary history of that age. At an earlier period, Burnman had published a modern poet in the same elaborate and splendid manner. "Petri Lotichii Secundi Opera omnia." Amst. 1754, 2 tom. 4to. He likewise undertook the task of editing the works of some modern critics. "Henrici Valesii Emendationum libri V. et de Critica libri duo," &c. Amst. 1740, 4to. "Nicolai Heinssii Adversariorum libri IV." &c. Harlingum, 1742, 4to. Of his personal history, a few particulars remain to be told. He was thrice married. About a year before his death, he resigned his professorship, and having received a liberal pension from the curators of the Athenæum, he retired to his villa at Santhorst, in the hope of long enjoying literary repose; but having been struck with apoplexy, he expired on the 24th of June 1778. He appears to have been a person of a disposition sufficiently irritable; he was from time to time involved in various strifes and contentions; and his quarrels with a Dutch and a German professor, Saxius and Klotz, gave occasion to many invectives in the Latin, Dutch, and German languages.² According to the testimony of his adversaries, he was not remarkable for his sobriety. To this alleged failing Klotz alludes in the following ludicrous verses, written in the character of the schoolmaster of Santhorst.

O cælum! noster dominus,
Petrus Burnmannus Secundus,
Est mortuus, ut unus mus.
Quid nos incipimus?
Cum quo nos nunc bibamus,
Ni Petrum nostrum dominum, ni Petrum habeamus?

Habebat multos cytharos,
Habebat scyphos vitreos,
Et calices argenteos.

Sic est, sic omnia sunt vana,
Sic vita aufugit humana,
Disceat noster doctulus, diurniputit ut rana.

Ille bibebat fortiter,
Et tonans terribiliter,
Exhaurebat bis et ter
Urnam magnam ispenam,
Quam dicebat Hippocrenam,
Nunc dedit noster dominus, nunc dedit morti penam.³

Although it certainly is not safe to take any person's character from his enemies, yet even by his enemies a very sober man will not often be accused of intemperance. (x.)

BURNET, THOMAS, a distinguished writer, was born at Croft in Yorkshire about the year 1635, but is supposed to have been descended of a Scottish family. His early education he received at the free-school of Northallerton in the same county, under Thomas Smelt, who used to propose him as an example to the rest of his scholars. On the 26th of June 1651, he was admitted a pensioner of Clare Hall at Cambridge, under the tuition of Tillotson, who continued to remember him with kindness; but in the year 1654, he removed to Christ's College, on the election of Dr Cudworth to the mastership, and there he obtained a fellowship in the year 1657. In 1661 he became senior proctor of the university. He was successively domestic tutor to Charles duke of Bolton, and to James earl of Ossory, afterwards duke of Ormonde, grandson to the first duke; and by the interest of the latter nobleman he was chosen master of the Charter-house in 1685. Among the electors, some of the bishops opposed him on account of his wearing a lay-habit; but the duke was satisfied that he possessed the more essential qualifications of a life and conversation suitable to his clerical character. After this appointment, he took the degree of D.D. In his capacity of master, he made a noble stand against the admission of a papist named Andrew Popham, as a pensioner of the house: on the 26th of December 1686, the king addressed to the governors a letter dispensing with the statutes; but the opposition of the master being vigorously supported by other governors, James deemed it prudent to desist from this illegal attempt.

Dr Burnet had already published his *Telluris Theoria ætera*. Lond. 1681, 4to. This work attracted an unusual share of the public attention, and he was afterwards encouraged to exhibit it in an English dress. His *Sacred Theory of the Earth* was printed in folio, the first part in 1684, and the conclusion in 1689. Addison commended the author in a Latin ode. His fanciful theory was however attacked by Dr Keill, Mr Whiston, and Mr Warren, to all of whom he returned an answer. He had now acquired a high reputation as a man of talents; and after the revolution, he was introduced at court by Archbishop Tillotson, whom he succeeded as clerk of the closet to King William.⁴ He seemed already to be on the direct road to much higher preferment, when he suddenly marred his own prospects by the publication of a learned and ingenious work, entitled *Archæologie Philosophicæ: sive Doctrina antiquæ de Rerum Originibus*. Lond. 1692, 4to. The mode in which he discussed the history of the fall of man, excited a great clamour against him; and the king was obliged to remove him from his office at court. Of this book an English translation was executed by Mr Foxton. Lond. 1729, 8vo. Dr Burnet next published

¹ "Habebat enim cum ipse maximam doctrinæ copiam, tum vero litterarum suppellectilem ex libris virorum doctorum ineditis tantam quantum privatarum quidam hominum haud scio an nemo usquam habuerit." (Wyttembachii Opuscula, tom. I. p. 136. Lugd. Bat. 1621, 2 tom. 8vo.)

² Harlesius de Vitæ Philologorum, vol. i. p. 114.

³ Funus Petri Burnmanni Secundi, edidit Christianus Adolphus Klotz, p. 61. Altenburgi, 1762, 8vo.

⁴ Birch's Life of Tillotson, p. 276. Lond. 1752, 8vo.

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"Remarks upon an Essay concerning Human Understanding, in a Letter addressed to the Author." Lond. 1697, 4to. "Second Remarks, &c. being a Vindication of the first Remarks against the Answer of Mr Locke, at the end of his Reply to the Lord Bishop of Worcester." Lond. 1697, 4to. "Third Remarks," &c. Lond. 1699, 4to. These remarks were answered by Catherine Trotter, afterwards Mrs Cockburn, in her "Defence of Mr Locke's Essay," written when she was twenty-three years of age, and printed at London in 1702. He died at the Charterhouse on the 27th of September 1715, at a very advanced age. Two of his works were published several years after his death. *De Fide et Officiis Christianorum Liber posthumus.* Lond. 1722, 4to. *De Statu Mortuorum et Resurgentium Tractatus.* Lond. 1723, 4to. Of the first of these works, there are several other editions, one of which was published by Dr Teller of Berlin. Halle Magdeburg. 1766, 8vo. The second has likewise been more than once reprinted; and two English translations were published by Matthias Ezerby and John Dennis. The author was evidently a man of genius and learning; but his fancy being sometimes more vigorous than his judgment, he is not on all occasions a very safe guide. In this work he maintains the doctrine of the middle state, the Millennium, and the limited duration of future punishment. Muratori, an Italian writer of great eminence, published copious animadversions upon it, under the subsequent title: "*De Paradiso Regnique Cælestis Gloria, non expectata Corporum Resurrectione, Justis a Deo conlata; adversus Thomæ Burneti Britanni Librum de Statu Mortuorum.*" Verona, 1738, 4to. The name of Burnet appears in the following publication, but his only contribution consists of a few pages translated from his treatise on the faith and duties of Christians: "The Judgment of Dr Thomas Burnet, late Master of the Charter-House, concerning the Doctrine of the Trinity; and the Judgment of Dr Samuel Clarke, late Rector of St James's, concerning 1. the Satisfaction, 2. the Merits, 3. the Mediation and Intercession of Christ, 4. the ordinary Influence and Assistance of the Holy Spirit, 5. the two Sacraments. With a preface concerning Mr Lock, Sir Isaac Newton, and Mr Wollaston." Lond. 1732, 8vo. (x.)

BURNET, Gilbert, bishop of Salisbury, was born at Edinburgh in 1643, but was descended of an ancient family in the county of Aberdeen. His father being bred to the law, was, at the restoration of King Charles II., appointed one of the lords of session, by the title of Lord Crimond, as a reward for his constant attachment to the royal party during the civil wars. Gilbert, the youngest son of his father, was instructed by him in the Latin tongue; and at ten years of age he was sent to Marischal College, Aberdeen, where he was admitted A. M. before he was fourteen years of age. His own inclination led him to the study of the civil and feudal law; and he used to say that it was from this study he had received more just notions concerning the foundations of civil society and government, than those which some divines maintain. He afterwards changed his views, and, to the great satisfaction of his father, began to apply to divinity. He received ordination before the age of eighteen; and Sir Alexander Burnet, his cousin-german, offered him a benefice, but he refused to accept of it.

In 1663, about two years after the death of his father, he came into England; and after six months stay at Oxford and Cambridge, returned to Scotland; which he soon left again to make a tour of some months, in 1664, in Holland and France. At Amsterdam, by the help of a Jewish

rabbi, he perfected himself in the Hebrew language; and likewise became acquainted with the leading men of the different persuasions tolerated in that country. Calvinists, Arminians, Lutherans, Anabaptists, Brownists, Papists, and Unitarians; among each of which sects he used frequently to declare he met with men of such unfeigned piety and virtue, that he became fixed in a strong principle of universal charity, and an invincible abhorrence of all severities on account of religious dissensions.

Upon his return from his travels, he was admitted minister of Saltoun; in which station he served five years in the most exemplary manner. He drew up a memorial, in which he took notice of the principal errors in the conduct of the Scottish bishops, which he observed not to be conformable to the primitive institution; and sent a copy of it to several of them. This exposed him to their resentments; but to show he was not actuated by a spirit of ambition, he led a retired course of life for two years, which so endangered his health that he was obliged to abate his excessive application to study. In the year 1668 he was appointed professor of divinity in the university of Glasgow; and, according to the usual practice, he read his lectures in the Latin language. It was apparently at this period that he laid the chief foundation of that theological learning for which he became so distinguished. In 1669 he published his "Modest and free Conference between a Conformist and Nonconformist." He became acquainted with the Duchess of Hamilton, who communicated to him all the papers belonging to her father and her uncle; upon which he drew up the "Memoirs of the Dukes of Hamilton," afterwards printed at London, in folio, in the year 1677. The Duke of Lauderdale, hearing he was engaged in this work, invited him to London, and introduced him to King Charles II. He returned to Scotland, and married Lady Margaret Kennedy, daughter of the Earl of Cassilis, a lady of great knowledge, and highly esteemed by the Presbyterians, to whose sentiments she was strongly inclined.¹ As there was some disparity in their ages, that it might be sufficiently evident that this match was wholly owing to inclination, and not to avarice or ambition, the day before their marriage he delivered to the lady a deed, by which he renounced all pretensions to her fortune, which was very considerable, and must otherwise have fallen into his hands, she herself having no intention to secure it. His "Vindication of the Authority, Constitution, and Laws of the Church and State of Scotland," was printed at Glasgow, in octavo, in the year 1673. This was considered as so material a service to the government, that he was again offered a bishopric, with a promise of the next vacant archbishopric; but he did not accept of it, because he could not approve of the measures of the court, the great view of which he perceived to be the advancement of popery. The publication itself was one of those which the author could not afterwards recollect with much satisfaction.

His intimacy with the Dukes of Hamilton and Lauderdale procured him frequent messages from the king and the Duke of York, who had conversations with him in private. But Lauderdale, who was the most unprincipled man of the age, conceiving a resentment against him on account of the freedom with which he spoke to him, represented at last to the king that Dr Burnet was engaged in an opposition to his measures; and on his return to London he perceived that these suggestions had entirely deprived him of the king's favour, though the Duke of York treated him with greater civility than ever, and dissuaded him from going to Scotland. He accordingly resigned his pro-

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¹ Some degree of attention has lately been directed to this lady in consequence of the publication of a collection of *Letters from Lady Margaret Burnet to John Duke of Lauderdale.* Edinb. 1826, 4to.

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fellowship at Glasgow, and settled in London. About this time the living of Cripplegate being vacated, the dean and chapter of St Paul's (in whose gift it was), hearing of his circumstances, and the hardships which he had undergone, made him an offer of the benefice; but, as he had been informed of their first intention of conferring it on Dr Fowler, he generously declined it. In 1675, at the recommendation of Lord Hollis, whom he had known in France as ambassador at that court, he was by Sir Harbottle Grimston, master of the rolls, appointed preacher at the Rolls chapel, notwithstanding the opposition of the court; and he was soon afterwards chosen lecturer at St Clement's, and became one of the most popular preachers in town. The first volume of his *History of the Reformation of the Church of England* was published in folio in 1681, the second in 1683, and the third in 1715. For this great work he received the thanks of both houses of parliament. Of the first two volumes he published an abridgment in the year 1683.

Dr Burnet about this time happened to be sent for to a woman in sickness, who had been engaged in an amour with the Earl of Rochester. The manner in which he treated her during her illness gave that profligate nobleman a great curiosity for being acquainted with him; and during a whole winter, he spent one evening of the week with Dr Burnet, who discussed with him all those topics upon which sceptics and men of loose morals attack the Christian religion. The happy effects of these conferences occasioned the publication of his account of the life and death of that nobleman. In 1682, when the administration was changed in favour of the Duke of York, being much resorted to by persons of all ranks and parties, in order to avoid returning visits, he built a laboratory, and for above a year pursued a course of chemical experiments. Not long after he refused a living of three hundred pounds a year offered him by the Earl of Essex, on the terms of his not residing there, but in London. When the enquiry concerning the popish plot was on foot, he was frequently sent for and consulted by King Charles with relation to the state of the nation. His majesty offered him the bishopric of Chichester, then vacant, if he would engage in his interests; but he refused to accept it on these terms. He preached at the Rolls till 1684, when he was dismissed by order of the court.

About this period he published various works, among which we must not overlook the following seven. "Some Passages of the Life and Death of John Earl of Rochester." Lond. 1680, 8vo. "The Life and Death of Sir Matthew Hale, Kt. sometime Lord Chief Justice of his Majesties Court of Kings Bench." Lond. 1682, 8vo. "The History of the Rights of Princes in disposing of Ecclesiastical Benefices and Church Lands." Lond. 1682, 8vo. "The Life of William Bedell, D. D. Bishop of Kilmore in Ireland." Lond. 1685, 8vo. "Reflections on Mr Varillas's History of the Revolutions that have happened in Europe in matters of Religion, and more particularly on his ninth book, that relates to England." Amst. 1686, 12mo. "A Defence of the Reflections on the ninth book of the first volume of Mr Varillas's History of Heresies; being a Reply to his Answer." Amst. 1687, 12mo. "A Continuation of Reflections on Mr Varillas's History of Heresies, particularly on that which relates to English Affairs in his third and fourth tomes." Amst. 1687, 12mo. He bore a very conspicuous part in the controversy which at that time was so ably maintained against the papists; and

a complete catalogue of his works would occupy no small space. The following translations deserve to be mentioned in this very brief and inadequate notice. "Utopia, written in Latin by Sir Thomas More, Chancellor of England: translated into English." Lond. 1685, 8vo. "A Relation of the Death of the primitive Persecutors, written originally in Latin by L. C. F. Lactantius: Englished by Gilbert Burnet, D. D. to which he hath made a large preface concerning persecution." Amst. 1687, 12mo.

On King James's accession to the throne, having obtained leave to quit the kingdom, he first went to Paris, and lived in great retirement, till, contracting an acquaintance with Brigadier Stoupe, a Protestant gentleman in the French service, he made a tour with him into Italy. He met with an agreeable reception at Rome. Pope Innocent XI. hearing of his arrival, sent the captain of the Swiss guards to acquaint him he would give him a private audience in bed, to avoid the ceremony of kissing his holiness's slipper; but Dr Burnet excused himself as well as he could. Here, with more zeal than prudence, he engaged in some religious disputes; and, on receiving an intimation from Prince Borghese, he found it necessary to withdraw from this stronghold of priestcraft, and pursued his travels through Switzerland and Germany. He afterwards came to Utrecht, with an intention to settle in some of the seven provinces. There he received an invitation from the prince and princess of Orange (to whom their party in England had recommended him) to come to the Hague, and of this invitation he accepted. He was soon acquainted with the secret of their councils, and advised the preparation of a fleet in Holland sufficient to support their designs and encourage their friends. This, and the account of his travels, in which he endeavoured to blend popery and tyranny together, and represent them as inseparable, with some papers reflecting on the proceedings of England, that came out in single sheets, and were dispersed in several parts of England, of most of which Dr Burnet owned himself the author, alarmed King James, and were the occasion of his writing twice against him to the princess of Orange, and insisting, by his ambassador, on his being forbidden the court; which, after much importunity, was done, though he continued to be trusted and employed as before, the Dutch minister daily consulting him. To put an end to these frequent conferences with the ministers, a prosecution for high treason was commenced against him both in England and Scotland; but receiving the intelligence before it reached the states, he avoided the storm, by petitioning for, and obtaining without any difficulty, a bill of naturalization, in order to his intended marriage with Mary Scott, a Dutch lady of considerable fortune, who, with the advantage of birth, united those of a fine person and understanding.

After his marriage with this lady, being legally under the protection of Holland, when Dr Burnet found King James plainly subverting the constitution, he omitted no method to support and promote the design which the prince of Orange had formed of delivering Great Britain; and, having accompanied him in quality of chaplain, he was in the year 1689 advanced to the see of Salisbury. He declared for moderate measures with regard to the clergy who scrupled to take the oaths, and many were displeased with him for declaring for the toleration of nonconformists. As my lord of Salisbury, says the Earl of Shaftesbury, "has done more than any man living for the good and

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¹ "Which," says Dr Johnson, "the critic ought to read for its elegance, the philosopher for its arguments, and the minst for its piety." (*Lives of English Poets*, vol. i. p. 303.)

² Some Letters, containing an Account of what seemed most remarkable in Switzerland, Italy, &c. written by G. Burnet, D. D. to T. H. B. Rotterdam, 1686, 8vo.

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honour of the church of England and the reform'd religion, so he now suffers more than any man from the tongues and slander of those ungrateful church-men; who may well call themselves by that single term of distinction, having no claim to that of Christianity or Protestant, since they have thrown off all the temper of the former, and all concern or interest with the latter." The same noble writer has elsewhere mentioned him in the following terms of commendation: "The Bishop of Salisbury's Exposition of the Articles is, no doubt, highly worthy of your study. None can better explain the sense of the church, than one who is the greatest pillar of it since the first founders; one who best explain'd and asserted the reformation itself; was chiefly instrumental in saving it from popery before and at the Revolution; and is now the truest example of laborious, primitive, pious, and learned episcopacy."

His pastoral letter concerning the oaths of allegiance and supremacy to King William and Queen Mary, 1689, happening to touch upon the right of conquest, gave such offence to both houses of parliament, that it was ordered to be burnt by the hands of the common executioner. He soon afterwards published a very valuable work, entitled *A Discourse of the Pastoral Cure*. Lond. 1692, 4to. In 1698 he lost his wife by the small-pox; and as he was almost immediately after appointed preceptor to the Duke of Gloucester, of whose education he took great care, this employment, and the tender age of his children, induced him the same year to supply her loss by a marriage with Mrs Berkeley, a widow, who was eldest daughter of Sir Richard Blake. In 1699 he published his *Exposition of the thirty-nine Articles* which occasioned a representation against him in the lower house of convocation in the year 1701, but he was vindicated in the upper house. His speech in the House of Lords in 1704 against the bill to prevent occasional conformity, was severely attacked. He formed a scheme for augmenting the small livings; which he pressed forward with such success, that it ended in an act of parliament passed in the second year of Queen Anne, for the augmentation of the livings of the poor clergy. He died in 1715, and was interred in the church of St James, Clerkenwell, where a monument was erected to his memory.

Bishop Burnet's *History of his own Time*, consisting of two large volumes in folio, was not published till several years after the author's death; the first volume appeared in 1724, and the second in 1734. An account of his life was added by his youngest son Sir Thomas Burnet, one of the judges of the court of common pleas. The history itself was not printed without mutilations; but after an interval of nearly a century, an edition, containing all the passages which had formerly been suppressed, was published under the superintendence of the learned Dr Routh, Oxford, 1823, 6 vols. 8vo. This is a work of great and intrinsic value; it exhibits many curious and interesting delineations of character, and many striking views of the causes and progress of events. The first volume, which relates to the reigns of Charles II. and his brother James, we consider as the more interesting of the two. His materials are not always very carefully digested, and his style is sometimes supposed to be too familiar; but these defects are abundantly compensated by the copiousness of his information, the benevolence of his sentiments, and the earnestness of his manner. The *Conclusion* displays superior dignity of composition, and cannot be perused without the most favourable impression of the author's intellectual attainments and moral worth. He uniformly evinces his attachment to the cause of freedom, nor is this

the least conspicuous part of his character: the church of England, in its collective capacity, has always been hostile to civil as well as religious liberty; and its annals exhibit very few names which tend to remove the general stigma. Those of Burnet and Handley ought never to be forgotten.

BURNET, James, Lord Monboddo, a senator of the college of justice, was born about the year 1714. He was the son of Mr Burnet of Monboddo in Kincardineshire. After passing through the usual course of school education, he prosecuted his studies at the universities of Aberdeen, Edinburgh, and Leyden, with distinguished reputation. He was admitted an advocate in 1737; and on the 12th of February 1767, he was raised to the bench by the title of Lord Monboddo.

A journey to London became a favourite amusement of his periods of vacation from the business of the court; and for a time he made this journey once a year. A carriage, a vehicle that was not in common use among the ancients, he considered as an engine of effeminacy and sloth, which it was disgraceful for a man to make use of in travelling. To be dragged at the tail of a horse, instead of mounting upon his back, seemed, in his eyes, to be a truly ludicrous degradation of the genuine dignity of human nature: in all his journeys, therefore, between Edinburgh and London, he was wont to ride on horseback, with a single servant attending him. He continued this practice, without finding it too fatiguing for his strength, till he was upwards of eighty years of age.

Lord Monboddo is well known to the world as a man of letters. His first publication was *The Origin and Progress of Language*, in two vols. 8vo, 1773, which were followed by four more volumes, the last being published not long before his death. In this work, intended chiefly to vindicate the honour of Grecian literature, he ascribes the origin of alphabetical writing to the Egyptians; and strenuously maintains that the orang-outang is a class of the human species, and that his want of speech is merely accidental. He also endeavours to establish the reality of the existence of mermaids, and other fictitious animals. He was induced to undertake another work for the purpose of defending the cause of Grecian philosophy, and published, in five vols. 4to, a work entitled *Ancient Metaphysics*, which, like the other, is remarkable for a surprising mixture of erudition and genius, with the most absurd whim and conceit.

As a judge his decisions were sound, upright, and learned, marked with acute discrimination, and free from those paradoxes and partialities which appear in his writings. He attended his judicial duty with indefatigable diligence till within a few days of his death, which happened at his house in Edinburgh on the 26th of May 1796, at the advanced age of eighty-five.

BURNHAM, a market-town of the hundred of Brothecross, in the county of Norfolk, 128 miles from London, near the sea shore. The market is held on Monday. It is celebrated as the birth-place of Admiral Lord Nelson. The inhabitants amounted in 1801 to 743, in 1811 to 845, and in 1821 to 937.

BURNING, the action of fire on some pabulum or fuel. Burning, in antiquity, a way of disposing of the dead, much practised by the Greeks and Romans, and still retained by several nations in the East and West Indies. The antiquity of this custom reaches as high as the Theban war, where we are told of the great solemnity accompanying this ceremony at the pyre of Menæceus and Archemorus, who were contemporary with Jair, the eighth judge

Burnet
&
Burning.

¹ Shaftesbury's Letters, p. 28, 37.

Burning
Glasses.

of Israel. Homer abounds with funeral obsequies of this nature. In the interior regions of Asia, the practice was of very ancient date, and its continuance long; for we are told, that in the reign of Julian, the king of Chionia burnt his son's body, and deposited the ashes in a silver urn. Coeval almost with the first instances of this kind in the East, was the practice in the western parts of the world. The Herulians, the Getae, and the Thracians, had all along observed it; and its antiquity was as great among the Celts, Sarmatians, and other neighbouring nations. This custom seems to have arisen out of friendship to the deceased, whose ashes were preserved, as we preserve a lock of hair, a ring, or a seal, which had been the property of a departed friend.

Kings were burnt in cloth made of the asbestos stone, that their ashes might be preserved pure from any mixture with the fuel and other matters thrown on the funeral pile. The same method is still observed with the princes of Tartary. Among the Greeks, the body was placed on the top of a pile, on which were thrown divers animals, and even slaves and captives, besides unguents and perfumes. In the funeral of Patroclus we find a number of sheep and oxen thrown in, then four horses, followed by two dogs, and lastly by twelve Trojan prisoners. The like is mentioned by Virgil in the funerals of his Trojans; where, besides oxen, swine, and all manner of cattle, we find eight youths condemned to the flames. The first thing was the fat of the beasts, wherewith the body was covered, that it might consume the faster; it being reckoned a great felicity to be quickly reduced to ashes. For the like reason, where numbers were to be burnt at the same time, care was taken to mix with them some of humid constitutions, and therefore more easily to be inflamed. Thus we are assured by Plutarch and Macrobius, that for every ten men it was customary to put in one woman. Soldiers

usually had their arms burnt with them. The garments worn by the living were also thrown on the pile, with other ornaments and presents; a piece of extravagance which the Athenians carried to so great a height, that some of their lawgivers were forced to restrain them, by severe penalties, from defrauding the living by their liberality to the dead. In some cases, burning was expressly forbidden among the Romans, and even looked upon as the highest impiety. Thus, infants who died before the breeding of teeth were entombed unburnt in the ground, in a particular place set apart for this purpose. The same thing was practised in regard to persons struck dead with lightning, who were not allowed to be burnt again. Some say that burning was also denied to suicides. The manner of burning among the Romans was not unlike that of the Greeks. The corpse, being brought out without the city, was carried directly to the place appointed for burning it; which, if it joined the sepulchre, was called *bustum*, if separate from it, *ustrina*, and there laid on the *rogus* or *pyra*, a pile of wood prepared for burning it, and built in the shape of an altar, but of different height, according to the quality of the deceased. The wood used was commonly that of such trees as contain most pitch or resin; and whatever kind was used, they split it, for the more easy catching fire; while round the pile they set cypress trees, probably to hinder the noisome smell of the corpse. The body was not placed on the bare pile, but on the couch or bed whereon it lay; and when this was done, the next of blood performed the ceremony of lighting the pile; which they did with a torch, turning their faces all the while the other way, as if it were performed with reluctance. During the ceremony, decursions and games were celebrated; after which came the *ossilegium*, or gathering of the bones and ashes; also washing, anointing, and depositing them in urns.

Burning
Glasses.

BURNING GLASSES, OR BURNING MIRRORS,

THE name of certain glasses or mirrors which have the property of inflaming combustible substances by the action of the sun's rays, being so formed as to collect all the rays which fall over their whole surface into a single point or spot, more or less distant, according to the form of the glass. In this point the natural heat of the sun is found to be so augmented, owing to such a multitude of rays being all concentrated in so narrow a space, that it produces an intense temperature, and such as is quite sufficient, even with very ordinary glasses, to inflame wood or other combustible substances. There is always one particular point at a certain distance from the glass where the heat is the greatest. If we place the burning body nearer the glass the heat diminishes, till it will no longer take fire; and if we place it further from it, the same effect takes place. Hence this point, where the heat is the most intense, has received the name of the *focus* of the glass.

Focus.

Refracting
and reflect-
ing glasses.

This property of burning glasses, however familiar it may now appear, is certainly very remarkable, and must, at the time of its invention, have excited no small degree of astonishment and of interest, from the striking nature of the effect, and from the uses to which it might be applied. The operation is now perfectly understood from the principles of optics, and is indeed extremely simple. See *Optics*. The rays of light are collected either by refraction in passing through a transparent glass, or by reflection from the polished surface of a mirror. Burning glasses are hence divided into two kinds—refracting glasses, which can only be made of glass or other transparent substance; and reflecting glasses, which are either

made of glass silvered behind, or of polished metal, or any other reflecting substance. Reflectors of polished metal are generally termed *specula*. In the former kind the glasses are of a convex form, and collect the rays of the sun into a focus behind the glass, as at fig. 1, Plate CXXI.; each ray, as it strikes more or less obliquely on the surface of the glass, being more or less bent out of its natural course by the refractive medium, so that they are all made to converge to one point or focus of refraction. Reflecting glasses, again, are all concave, and the rays of the sun are collected into a focus in front of the mirror by reflection; each ray, as it strikes more or less obliquely on the surface of the mirror, being reflected back, but at the same time inclined to the centre, so that they are all made to converge to a point or focus of reflection in a similar manner, as at fig. 2.

In both these cases it is by the peculiar shape or figure of the glass or mirror that the convergence of all rays to one point is produced; and to ascertain therefore the figure which would do this most perfectly becomes an important object in the construction of glasses, and is, besides, a curious mathematical problem. In the case of refracting glasses, where we have a double surface, one on each side of the glass, it was first shown by the celebrated Descartes, that a glass having its exterior surface convex, and a portion of an elliptic curve, while its interior surface was concave, and formed a portion of a circle, would cause parallel rays, or those of the sun, to converge to a perfect focus, as at fig. 3, where the exterior surface of the lens BAC forms a portion of an ellipse, whose

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greater axis AX is to the distance between the foci FF, as the index of refraction is to unity, and a circle whose centre is at F. Various other forms have been proposed, but, owing to the great difficulty of forming glasses of these compound curves, it was found more convenient in practice to rest content with the exterior surface BAC, a portion of the simple curve of the circle or sphere, particularly as in large glasses, or those of slight convexity, the sphere approaches very nearly to that of the ellipse. Each side of the glass, therefore, is carefully turned and ground into the portion of a sphere, forming together what is termed a *lens*; and the greater the radius of convexity is, the greater is the distance of the focus from the glass. It happens by a curious coincidence, that in glass the focal distance of parallel rays, usually termed the *principal focus* of the lens, in a double convex lens, is just equal to the radius of convexity. In every burning glass, therefore, of this description, it is easy to find the focus by measuring from the centre of the lens a distance equal to the radius of curvature. In the case of burning mirrors, the true figure for converging the rays to a perfect focus is that of the parabola; a form which is frequently constructed, the mirrors being either turned or hammered out of metal, and the figure therefore more readily attained than in glass. The focal distance is always equal to the radius of the concavity at the centre of the mirror. Hence in large mirrors of a shallow concavity, or with a large radius, the spherical form will approach very nearly to that of the parabola, and will therefore produce very nearly the full effect of it. The focus may also be found practically by holding the glass up to the sun, and observing where the concentration of the light is the greatest. In doing this a remarkable circumstance is observed. However perfect the figure of the glass, the rays in the focus are never converged to a mathematical point; they are always diffused over a certain space, forming a spot of determinate magnitude. The reason of this will appear very obvious, when we consider that the sun presents a very sensible magnitude, even at the enormous distance at which he is viewed. The rays from different parts of the body, from the opposite limbs, for instance, instead of being parallel, subtend sensible angles. Though all the rays therefore from any one point in the sun are sensibly parallel to each other, and those which fall on different parts of the glass from this single point are all converged to a mathematical point in the focus, this is not the case with rays coming from different points of the sun. These not being parallel, cannot by any means be thrown together in the focus, but each to a distinct point corresponding to that from which it issues in the sun, whether by refraction or reflection, so as to form on the whole an image or figure of the sun, subtending the same angle at the glass as the sun does. This is evident from an inspection of figures 4 and 5, where the rays from each limb by refraction cross one another in the centre of the glass, and again diverge, forming the boundary of the focal image at the same angle as the image itself, or by reflection meet and diverge in returning at the same angle. Hence it follows that the magnitude of the focal image will depend entirely on the focal distance, and in no respect on the magnitude of the glass or mirror. The greater the focal distance the larger will the image be. In every case it will be proportional to the sine of 32° , the angle at which the sun subtends at the glass; and hence the focal diameter will be very nearly $\frac{1}{10}$ th part of the focal distance. Hence the reason of a very curious fact, that in any large glass or mirror, though we were to cut off a zone from the exterior circumference, it would not alter in the least the magnitude of the focal image; it would only diminish the intensity of the light. Whether the figure of the glass also

be square, or circular, or elliptical, or any other shape, the figure of the image will be invariably a circle. Such then is the limit of concentration even for the most perfect glasses; and hence we see that it is not absolutely necessary to have the glasses of the perfect figure required by theory, at least it is not of such essential consequence as in the case of telescopes or microscopes, where the distinctness of the image is of as much consequence as the concentration of rays. Here, though the image be ever so confused, seeing it is heat only which we want, it is of no consequence, so that they fall within the limits of the focus. If the spherical figure, then, has been adapted with success to the nice purposes of vision, by using spherical lenses and reflectors of gentle curvature, much more may it suffice for burning glasses, where any imperfections of this kind are of less importance; the only effect of these being to produce in the focus a somewhat less powerful concentration of the rays. In practice, however, the difference with small glasses, such as four, five, or six inches diameter, and focal distances of two or three feet, is really hardly measurable. Even with very large glasses it is far from being considerable. In the great burning glasses of Tschirnhausen, for example, three or four feet in diameter, the focal distance was twelve feet; and hence a perfect image of the sun should have been $1\frac{1}{4}$ inches = 1.44 inches; and it was actually about an inch and a half. The famous lens of Parker had a focal distance of six feet eight inches; and hence the perfect image should have been 0.8 inches, and the actual burning focus was one inch diameter. In reflection, again, the mirror of Vilette had a focal length of about thirty-eight inches, and therefore an image by calculation of 0.38 inches; it was actually about the size of half a louis d'or.

In regard to the actual heating power of burning glass-Hesting es, if this depended only on the concentration of the rays power, it would be easily calculated. The degree of concentration is in every case proportional as the square of the diameter of the glass to the square of the diameter of the focal image. In an ordinary reading glass, therefore, say of two inches diameter and six inches focal distance, the focal diameter being thus 0.06, the concentration would be as four to .0036, or as one to 0.0009, or nearly 1000 times. No wonder, then, that such a glass should so readily produce inflammation. Even in some of the large burning glasses the actual concentration did not so much exceed this as might be imagined. In the compound burning glasses of Tschirnhausen the diameter of the first glass being three and four feet, and the focal diameter of the second glass only eight lines or two thirds of an inch, the concentration would be as 2304 and 1296 to 0.44, or 5184 times in the one case, and 2916 in the other. In Vilette's burning mirror the diameter was thirty inches, and the focal diameter about half an inch. The concentration would thus be 3600 times. But the most powerful of all these glasses is the compound one of Parker. In this the diameter of the first glass was thirty-two and a half inches, and the focal diameter of the second three eighths of an inch; hence the concentration was equal to 7168 times.

In order, however, to calculate the actual increase of Effect of temperature, we must first know the effect of the sun's natural heat. The most accurate experiments on this heat of the subject are those made by Professor Leslie with his photometer, an instrument of great delicacy, peculiarly adapted for measuring the heat of the sun, as it is entirely free of any extraneous impression from the surrounding atmosphere. "In the latitude of Edinburgh," he says, "the direct impression of the sun at noon, during the summer solstice, amounts to 90° ($\approx 16.9^\circ$ Fahrenheit); but it regularly declines as his rays become more oblique. At the

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altitude of 17° it is already reduced to one half; and at 3° above the horizon the whole effect exceeds not 1° . In the same parallel of latitude, the greatest force of the solar beams in the depth of winter measures only 25° ($\approx 4\frac{1}{2}$ Fahrenheit). Taking the average effect, then, at 10° , it would appear that the above reading glass would be capable of producing a heat of 10,000°, which is far above the melting point of brass, copper, silver, and lead. The glasses of Teclirnhusen would produce a heat of 29,160° and 51,840°, the mirror of Vilette 36,000°, and Parker's glass the enormous heat of 71,680°, which is nearly double the highest heat measurable by Wedgewood's pyrometer.

Effect of
concentra-
tion modi-
fied.

But the temperature due to the mere concentration of the rays will evidently be considerably modified, according as the accumulating heat is more or less rapidly dissipated from the focal point into the surrounding medium; and this will depend chiefly on the conducting power of the substance receiving heat, and of those with which it is in contact. This effect is observed, indeed, in the case of a body exposed to the natural heat of the sun. As the accumulating heat raises the temperature of the body, this causes a dispersion both by radiation and contact into the surrounding atmosphere, so that there will be a stream of heat continually escaping from the body, as well as one running in; and when the final temperature is attained, these two effects will exactly balance each other, the quantity dispersed being exactly equal to that which is received during the same time. Now, the quantity dispersed must evidently be proportional to the excess of temperature of the body above the surrounding atmosphere, and also to the surface exposed. Hence a slow conducting body exposed to the sun,—a ball of wood, for instance,—will acquire a higher temperature than a similar ball of copper. In the latter the heat will be quickly diffused over the whole mass, and dispersed into the atmosphere from every part of its surface: in the former it will pass very slowly through the mass, and accumulating more at one side, and having a smaller surface to disperse itself by, will produce there a greater elevation of temperature; or if the copper be surrounded by any slow conducting substance,—if it be bedded in a mass of charcoal or brick, the temperature acquired will be greater, as in the case of fruit-trees on a wall, the brick confining the heat, and causing a greater accumulation and a higher temperature, just as the damming up of any stream of water raises the level of the fluid. The same thing must take place with the rays of light concentrated by the burning glass. The temperature in the focus must continue rising until the dispersion of the heat from the focal point equals what is constantly received; and the more, therefore, this dispersion can be retarded by the interposition of slow conducting substances, the higher will the temperature rise. It has always been found, accordingly, that refractory metals, or stones, melt much more readily when laid in a mass of charcoal. This circumstance explains a fact first proved by Buffon, and invariably experienced in burning glasses, that, even with the same degree of concentration of rays, the effect will be much greater with a large focus than with a small one. The latter operating in a very narrow space, and dispersing the heat rapidly into the surrounding mass, there is little left for accumulation. In the former, the heat increasing as the square of the diameter, while the dispersion into the surrounding substance only increases merely as the diameter, much more remains to accumulate in the centre; and the central portion of the focus, indeed, being surround-

ed by a zone almost as hot as itself, much less dispersion can take place, and the temperature, therefore, will rise much higher. If we take, for example, a glass two inches diameter, with a concentrating power of 300, and another six inches diameter of the same power, the one will inflame paper in two or three seconds, while the other will hardly accomplish it at all. These circumstances, therefore, greatly modify the effects of concentration, and serve to account for the very feeble powers of small glasses, and the intense heat of larger ones not greatly differing in concentrative action. The most powerful glass, for instance, ever constructed, was that of Parker, and yet its concentrative power was only seven times greater than that of an ordinary reading glass; and this is the reason also, as we shall see, that the reflecting mirrors of Buffon for burning at a distance produced such powerful effects, the concentration being small compared with that of single glasses, but the focal image much larger.

Such being the general principles of burning glasses History and description of burning glasses. and mirrors, we shall now describe some of the principal instruments of this kind which have been constructed, and their effects. The invention of mirrors or looking-glasses, constructed probably of polished brass, remounts to a very remote antiquity, as they are mentioned by Moses in the sacred writings. At what period they were employed in a concave form to concentrate the solar rays by reflection is not known, but it is very probable that mirrors of this kind were used to rekindle the vestal fires. Plutarch, in his life of Numa, 700 years before Christ, describes the *expæta*, or dishes which were employed for this purpose, and which appear to have been concave segments of a sphere; and he states that the combustible matter was placed in the centre, meaning, no doubt, the focus or centre of concentrated rays. In the time of Socrates, 430 years before Christ, the manufacture of glass had made considerable progress; and it appears from a passage in one of the plays of Aristophanes, that the use of burning glasses was common. The author introduces Socrates as giving lessons in philosophy to Strepsiades, a citizen of Athens, and a man of low cunning. The subjects of these lessons are silly trifles, intended to make Socrates appear ridiculous. Strepsiades, after having asked him how he should avoid paying his debts, proposes the following expedient himself:—"Strepsiades, You have seen at the druggists that fine transparent stone with which they kindle fires? Socrates, You mean glass, do you not? Strepsiades, The very thing. Socrates, Well, what will you do with that? Strepsiades, When a summons is sent to me, I will take this stone, and, placing myself in the sun, I will melt all the writing of the summons at a distance." The writing, as we know, was traced on wax spread upon a more solid substance.

This description must refer to a burning glass by refraction. Several other ancient observations on the same phenomenon exist. Pliny mentions globes of glass or of crystal, which, being exposed to the sun, would burn clothes, or the flesh of a patient when cauterization was requisite. *Hist. Nat.* lib. xxvi. and xxxvii. Lactantius, who lived about the year 303, says, "a globe of glass filled with water, and exposed to the sun, will kindle a fire even in the coldest weather." (*De Ira Dei*.)

But the most memorable account of burning glasses, History and description of burning glasses. and of their effects in all antiquity, and what has excited of no small degree of speculation in succeeding times, is the Archimedes extraordinary achievement ascribed to Archimedes, of setting fire to the Roman fleet engaged in the siege of

¹ *Experimental Enquiry into the Nature and Propagation of Heat*, p. 440. Also, by the same author, *An Account of Experiments and Instruments depending on the relations of Air to Heat and Moisture*.

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Syracuse, "launching against it," as Buffon says, "the fire of the solar beams." This, if it can be proved, must, without doubt, be viewed as the most surprising effort of genius and practical skill which the history of human invention presents. By modern opticians, at the head of whom stood Descartes, the fact was long treated as fabulous, chiefly on account of its supposed impracticability; and no doubt this would be the case with single concave mirrors or reflectors, as they imagined Archimedes to have used, and which could not obviously be constructed of sufficient magnitude and focal distance to have any sensible effect. But if we suppose, as is far more probable, and as it is actually described by some authors, that the effect was produced by a number of plane mirrors arranged in a curve, and all uniting their rays in a focus, the impossibility of such a combination is by no means clear; and in fact its perfect practicability, first suggested by Anthemius, and rendered extremely probable by Kircher, was demonstrated by Buffon, and the apparatus actually constructed by him, so as to kindle wood and other inflammable substances at the distance of 200 yards. No doubt, therefore, can remain as to the possibility of producing the effects described. The only question now is in regard to the probability of the fact itself, and the evidence advanced for its support. In the first place, there is nothing improbable in the situation of the place; for Kircher, in his great zeal to throw light on this curious subject, actually made a voyage to Syracuse, in order to examine the situation of the hostile fleet, accompanied by his pupil Scholten, and they were both satisfied that the ships of Marcellus could not have been more than thirty paces distant from the place where Archimedes might have stood; and in regard to an objection which has been stated, that the vessels might have moved out of the way of the glasses, this does not seem to have much weight, as a moment might have been chosen when they were off their guard, and the glass could have been turned so as to follow them to a certain extent; besides that, the vessels might have been at anchor, or even aground at the time, and not capable of moving away with sufficient expedition. Let us just consider, therefore, the evidence for the fact itself. On the one hand, we have Polybius, Livy, and Plutarch, all silent on the subject, affording certainly a strong proof against the fact, when we consider also that the two former describe so particularly the mechanical contrivances of Archimedes; on the other hand, it has been positively affirmed by Vero, Diodorus Siculus, and Pappus; and though the works of the latter, which speak of the siege of Syracuse, are now lost, they existed in the twelfth century, and the passages which speak particularly of the burning glass of Archimedes are quoted by Zonaras and Tzetzes, writers of that period, and who appear incapable of inventing such a story of themselves. Zonaras states that "Archimedes burnt the fleet of the Romans in an admirable manner, for he turned a certain mirror towards the sun, which received its rays. The air having been heated on account of the density and smoothness of the mirror, he kindled an immense flame, which he precipitated on the vessels which were in the harbour, and reduced them to ashes." He then adds that Proclus, taught by this example, burnt with mirrors of brass the fleet of Vitellius, who besieged Constantinople under the emperor Anastasius in the year 513. Tzetzes, referring to the same authorities, states, that "when the fleet of Marcellus was within bow shot, the old man (Archimedes) brought out a hexagonal mirror which he had made. He placed at proper distances from the mirror other smaller mirrors, which were of the same kind, and which were moved by means of their hinges and certain square plates of metal. He afterwards placed his mirrors in the midst of the solar

rays precisely at noon-day. The rays of the sun being reflected by this mirror, he kindled a dreadful fire on the ships, which were reduced to ashes at a distance equal to that of a bow-shot. Dion and Diodorus, who wrote the life of Archimedes, and several other authors, speak of this fact, but chiefly Anthemius, who wrote on the prodigies of mechanics. It is in these works that we read the history of the conflagration occasioned by the mirror of Archimedes."

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This passage contains evidently a description of a combination of plane mirrors, so adapted and set to the position of the sun as to unite all the rays reflected from them into one focus. Besides these, we have the direct testimony, as above noticed, of Anthemius of Tralles, an eminent architect, and one besides deeply learned in the mathematical sciences, particularly mechanics. He flourished about the end of the fifth century, in the time of Justinian, with whom he was a favourite, and who employed him in the erection of various edifices, particularly the church of St Sophia at Constantinople, which he carried on for some time in conjunction with Isidore, and after his death, finished himself. He was also a disciple of Proclus, from whom he may have received information regarding burning mirrors. In a fragment entitled *εἰς ἀρχιμήδους ἀρπυγιστῆρα, ἢ τῶν θαυμάσιων μηχανῶν*, and translated and illustrated by Dupuy, a member of the Academy of Belles Lettres in 1777, Anthemius treats particularly of the burning mirrors of Archimedes, on the effects of which he never seems to entertain any doubt. After acknowledging that it was universally admitted in his time that Archimedes had destroyed the Roman fleet by means of burning mirrors, Anthemius observes, "Let us, therefore, bring and collect at one point other different rays, by means of plain and similar mirrors, in such a manner that all these rays, united after reflection, may produce inflammation. This may be effected by means of several persons holding mirrors, which, according to the positions indicated, send the rays to one point."

But, in order to avoid the embarrassment resulting from intrusting this operation to several persons (for we shall find that the matter intended to be burnt does not require less than twenty-four reflectors), the following construction may be followed: Let there be a hexagonal plain mirror, and other adjoining similar mirrors, attached to the sides of the hexagonal mirror by the smallest diameter, so that they may be moved on these lines by means of plates or bands applied, which unite them to each other, or by means of what are called hinges. If, therefore, we bring the surrounding mirrors into the same plane with the mirror in the centre, it is clear that all the rays will undergo a reflection similar and conformable to the common position of all the parts of the instrument. But if, the centre mirror remaining as it were immovable, we dexterously incline upon it all the other mirrors which surround, it is evident that the rays reflected by them will tend towards the middle of the place where the first mirror is directed. Repeat the same operation, and around the mirrors already described placing other similar mirrors, all of which may be inclined towards the central mirror, collect towards the same point the rays which they send, so that all these united rays may excite inflammation in the given spot.

But this inflammation will take place better if you can employ for this purpose four or five of these burning mirrors, and even seven, and if they are all at the same distance from the substance to be burnt, so as that the rays which issue from them, mutually intersecting, may render the inflammation more considerable. For, if the mirrors are all in one place, the rays reflected will intersect at very acute angles, so that all the place around the axis

Burning Glasses. being beaten, the inflammation will not take place at the single point given.

"It is therefore possible, by means of the burning mirrors just mentioned, to carry inflammation to a given distance. Those who have made mention of the mirrors constructed by the divine Archimedes, have not said that he made use of a single burning mirror, but of several; and I am of opinion that there is no other way of carrying inflammation to any distance."

Leonhard Digges.

These testimonies are certainly very favourable, and the subject has been still further explained and illustrated by the labours of succeeding inquirers. About the end of the sixteenth century we find mention of a burning glass on the plan of that of Archimedes, in a work by our countryman Leonhard Digges, entitled *Pantometria*, published in London in 1571, and republished by his son Thomas Digges in 1591. In the preface to the second edition the latter observes, "Archimedes also (as some supposed), with a glass framed by revolution of a section parabolical, fired the Roman naue in the sea, coming to the siege of Syracuse. But, to leave these celestial causes, and things done of antiquitie, long agoe, my father hath at sundrie times, by the sunne beames, fired powder and discharged ordnance half a mile and more distante; which things I am the boulder to report, for that there are yet living discourse of these his doings (*oculati testes, eye-witnesses*), and many other matters far more strange and rare, which I omit as impertinent to this place."

In the twenty-first chapter of the first book, the subject of burning glasses is resumed. "Some have fondly surmised that Archimedes burned the Roman naue with a portion of a section parabolical, artificially made to reflect and unite the sunne beames a great distance off; and for the construction of this glass, took great pains with high curiositie, to unite large and many intricate demonstrations; but it is a mere fantasie, and utterly impossible with any one glass, whatsoeuer it be, to fire any thing only one thousand paces off, no, though it were an 100 foute over; marry true it is, the parabola, for his small distance, most perfectly doth unite beames, and most vehemently burneth, of all other reflecting glasses. But how by application of mo glasses to extend this unite or concourse of beames in his full force, yea to augment and multiply the same, that the farther it is carried the more violently it shall pearse and burne. *Hoc opus hic labor est*, wherein God sparing life and the time which opportunitie serving, and kinde to impart to my countrymen some such secrets, hath I suppose, in this our age been reueled to very few, no lesse serving for the securitie and defence of our naturall country, than surely to be marvailed at of strangers."

Napier of Merchiston.

A few years after the publication of the *Pantometria* of Leonhard Digges, our illustrious countryman Baron Napier of Merchiston drew up a list of "Secret inventions, profitable and necessary in these days for the defence of this island, and withstanding of strangers, enemies of God's truth and religion." The first and second of these inventions are burning mirrors, which are very briefly described in the following words:—

First, "The invention, proof, and perfect demonstration, geometrical and algebraical, of a burning mirror, which receiving of dispersed beames of the sun, doth reflect the same beames altogether united and concurring precisely in one mathematical point, in the which point most necessarily it engendereth fire; what an evident demonstration of their error who affirm this to be made a parabolic section. The use of this invention serveth for the burning of the enemy's ships, at whatsoever appointed distance."

Secondly, "The invention and sure demonstration of another mirror, which receiving the dispersed beames of

any material fire or flame, yieldeth also the former effect, and serveth for the like use."

It does not appear that Napier ever condescended to give any further account of these burning mirrors; for when he was solicited a short time before his death, by one of his most particular friends, "not to bury such excellent inventions in the grave with him," he replied, "that for the ruin and overthrow of man there were too many devices already framed, which, if he could make to be fewer, he would with all his might endeavour to do; and that therefore seeing the malice and rancour rooted in the heart of mankind will not suffer them to diminish the number of them, by any new conceit of his they should never be increased."

The next author whom we find treating on the subject of the burning glasses of Archimedes, is the learned and indefatigable Kircher, whose zeal we have already mentioned as having led him to Syracuse to examine the practicability of the project on the spot, and who besides investigated the subject by a great variety of experiments.

"He began with combining a number of parabolic specula; but this method was quickly abandoned, and he resorted to the use of plane mirrors. Having procured a number of plane and circular glasses, he placed them upon a wall, at such degrees of inclination that they all reflected the light of the sun to one point, and produced a considerable heat. His principal experiments, however, were made with five plain specula fixed in a frame, so that they collected the solar rays at the distance of more than one hundred feet. At this distance he produced a degree of heat which sufficiently convinced him, that by increasing the number of his mirrors, he could have consumed inflammable substances at a much greater distance. He informs us in his *Magica Catoptrica*, that the heat of the first reflection was different from that of direct light; that the light, when doubled, gave a very preceptible increase of heat; that it had the heat of a fire when tripled; that when quadrupled, the heat could still be endured; but that a five-fold reflection made the heat almost intolerable. From these results he concludes that a combination of plane mirrors was capable of producing more powerful effects than mirrors of a parabolic, hyperbolic, or elliptic form; and he entreates future mathematicians to prosecute the subject with a more numerous combination of plane specula."

But of all the authors who have laboured in this *cu* Buffon. curious speculation, Buffon is the one who has thrown the clearest light on the subject; and, by the ingenuity, talent, and multiplicity of his experiments, has left little further to be accomplished by succeeding philosophers. Being soon convinced, like his predecessors, of the utter inefficiency of single mirrors, he then tried by experiment the powers of different plane surfaces in reflecting the sun's light, and found that glass, somewhat carefully polished and silvered behind, reflected more powerfully than the best polished metals, better even than what is employed for the specula of telescopes. He next found, by *Loss* of letting the direct light of the sun into a darkened room, light by and comparing it there with the reflected light from glass, reflection, that it only lost one half by reflection, which he judged of by causing one reflected light to cover another, when the two seemed together equal to the direct light. Thirdly, having received, at distances of one hundred, two hundred, and three hundred feet, the same reflected light from large glasses, he found it had lost almost nothing of its intensity by the thickness of the mass of air which it had traversed. Having established these preliminary facts, he then tried what the effect would be of receiving the image of the sun from different glasses at still greater distances; and a curious fact was observed, namely, that whatever

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Round
form of all
distant
images.

shape the glass might be, whether square or triangular, or any other, the same was the figure of the reflection at short distances: but as the distance increased, the figure became rounded at the angles; as the distance increased, the rounding of the angles increased along with it, until at last the square or triangular figure was changed into one nearly circular, whatever was the original figure of the glass.

This effect Buffon justly ascribed to the circumstance of the apparent magnitude of the sun, every portion of the glass reflecting in reality an image of the sun, and the whole reflection being composed of an infinite number of such images, each of which subtended an angle of half a degree. At small distances, therefore, the images are too small in proportion to the magnitude of the figure to affect the shape. As the distance increases, the magnitude of each of the images increasing along with it, while the figure and magnitude of the whole reflection remains in other respects the same, the former becomes at last equal to the latter, and the square or triangular figure is absorbed in that of the circular image of the sun, and every glass comes at last to give nearly the same figure. Hence it followed that the light could be no otherwise enfeebled by distance than as it was diffused by the increasing magnitude of the image. Putting all these circumstances together, Buffon had hopes of being able to burn in this manner at a great distance, by combining a sufficient number of glasses. Still he had doubts; for supposing we wish to burn at two hundred and forty feet distant, the focus or image of the sun at this distance could not be less than two feet. What a diffusion of light, compared with the degree of concentration in very ordinary glasses,—in the mirror of the Academy of Sciences, for instance, of which the diameter is three feet! This was a hundred times larger than the diameter of its focus, which was only one third of an inch; and hence he concluded, that to burn as powerfully at two hundred and forty feet, the diameter of the mirror would have required to be two hundred and sixteen feet, which was impossible. Still, however, he had a suspicion that the effect of a large focus might be greater than the mere effect of concentration, although this was contrary to the received opinion of Descartes and other opticians; and on appealing to actual experiment, he found his suspicions satisfactorily confirmed.

Effect of
large focal
image.

On trying, for example, a small burning glass three inches diameter, and the focal distance six inches, and diameter one eighteenth of an inch, with a glass thirty-two inches diameter, and a focus of two thirds of an inch,—in the focus of the latter copper melted in less than a minute, while in that of the former the copper would scarcely be gently heated, according to the principle we have already explained. Encouraged by this experiment, Buffon proceeded to put his plan in execution, and constructed, with the aid of M. Passavant, a compound mirror, represented at fig. 6. This consisted at first of sixty-eight silvered glasses, each eight inches long and six broad, arranged in a square frame parallel to each other, and separated by spaces, about one fourth or one third of an inch. These allowed the glasses to move easily independent of one another, and also allowed the operator to see through and to direct the reflections to one point. In this manner the whole sixty-eight mirrors could be made to unite their force at twenty, thirty, or even a hundred and fifty feet; and by augmenting the size of the compound mirror by adding to the number of small mirrors, the effect might be increased to any extent. The only difficulty consists in moving such a number of glasses, and directing them all to the same object. Great attention must also be paid to the choice of the glasses, which are often very defective, though they may appear well enough at first sight. The sixty-eight above described had to be picked

Compound
mirror.

out of more than five hundred. They were tried by observing the reflection on a wall a hundred and fifty feet distant, and those only which gave distinct and well-defined images were taken.

Burning
Glasses.

The first experiment was made with the mirror on the Effects of 23d of March 1747, at mid-day. With forty glasses only, mirror. it set fire to a plank of tarred beech. Not being yet mounted, however, on its stand, it acted under a great disadvantage.

The same day, a plank done over with tar and brimstone was set fire to at a hundred and twenty-six feet with ninety-eight glasses, the mirror being still more disadvantageously placed.

On the 3d of April, at four o'clock in the afternoon, the mirror being mounted and placed on its stand, a slight inflammation was produced on a plank covered with shreds of wool at a hundred and thirty-eight feet distance, with a hundred and twelve glasses, although the sun was weak, and the light very pale. One requires to take care of himself in approaching the place where the combustible materials are placed, and avoid looking at the mirror; for if unfortunately the eyes are found in the focus, they would be struck blind by the brightness of the light.

On the 4th of April, at eleven in the morning, the sun being very pale, and covered with vapours and light clouds, the mirror was still capable of producing, with a hundred and fifty-four glasses, at a hundred and fifty feet distance, a heat so considerable, that in less than two minutes it made a tarred plank smoke, which would certainly have been inflamed if the sun had not disappeared all of a sudden. The next day at three p. m. with the sun still more feeble than the preceding, chips of fir coated with sulphur and mixed with charcoal were kindled in less than a minute and a half, with a hundred and fifty-four glasses, at the distance of a hundred and fifty feet. When the sun was briak it only required a few seconds to produce inflammation.

On the 10th of April, after mid-day, with the sun pretty clear, a plank of tarred fir was kindled at a hundred and fifty feet with only a hundred and twenty-eight glasses; the inflammation was very sudden, and extended over the whole breadth of the focus of sixteen inches diameter. The same day at half-past two the light was directed on a plank of beech tarred in part and covered in some places with shreds of wool. The inflammation was very quickly produced; it commenced with those parts of the wood that were uncovered, and the fire was so violent that it was necessary to immerse the plank in water to extinguish it: there were a hundred and forty-eight glasses, and the distance was a hundred and fifty feet.

On the 11th of April, the focus being only twenty feet distant from the mirror, twelve glasses only were required to inflame little combustible matters. With twenty-one glasses a plank of beech which had been already partly inflamed was set fire to; with forty-five glasses a large flagon of tin, weighing about six pounds, was melted; and with a hundred and seventeen glasses thin pieces of silver were melted, and an iron plate made red hot; and "I am persuaded," says he, "that at fifty feet distant the metals might have been melted as well as at twenty, by employing all the glasses of the mirror; and as the focus at this distance is six or seven inches diameter, it affords a very convenient method of making experiments on the metals, which could not be done with ordinary mirrors, the foci of which are either of feeble power, or a hundred times smaller than that of mine. I remarked that the metals, and particularly silver, smoked much before melting: the smoke was so sensible as to cast a shade on the ground. This I particularly observed, for it was not possible to look at the metal in the focus, the light being much brighter than that of the sun."

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Glasses.

Such are the results of Buffon's original experiments, and they are certainly very remarkable, and such as could not have been well anticipated from any previous knowledge of the subject. We have already seen that, according to Professor Leslie's experiments, the greatest heat of the sun in our latitude is 16° ; suppose that in France it may amount to 15° in the month of April. The heat required to inflame beech or fir coated with tar cannot be estimated at less than 600° or 800° , which would require a concentration of forty or fifty times; and seeing one half is lost by reflection, it would require eighty or one hundred mirrors; and yet we see at the distance of twenty feet beech was inflamed with only twenty-one mirrors, which we should not have calculated to produce a higher temperature than 157° . Silver, again, cannot be melted with less heat than 4500° , or a concentration of 300 times, and requiring, therefore, 600 mirrors; and yet the pieces of it were melted with 117 mirrors. The same effects were observed at greater distances, making allowance for the distance. At 60 feet tarred beech was inflamed with 40 glasses, at 126 feet with 98, and at 150 feet tarred fir was inflamed very suddenly with 128 glasses. It is not easy to determine the exact diminution of effect by distance, so much will depend on the glasses themselves. Were the reflected image to enlarge itself regularly in receding from the glass, and the light to be equally diffused over the image, the calculation would be simple; but this is not the case, seeing there are rays proceeding from every point of the glass parallel to one another, and the effect of which therefore does not decrease with distance. The rays are also more accumulated in the centre than at the extremities of the image. Still, however, a decided diminution must arise from the distance of the object from the mirror; and the above results, therefore, are still far beyond what could have been looked for from so small a number of glasses employed. The cause of these extraordinary effects of the mirrors it is not easy to explain; and the discrepancy does not seem to have occurred to Buffon, nor to any of the succeeding philosophers who have considered the subject. It is certainly, however, very palpable; and either the original estimate of 15° for the natural heat of the sun is too low, which, however, we have no reason to think from other considerations, as well as the acknowledged accuracy of the observer, and his perfect means of observation; or else, what is more probable, the heat accumulates in the heated body in a higher ratio than that of the amount continually flowing in and discharged. The level of a reservoir, as is well known, rises higher than in proportion to the quantity running in, and discharged by a given opening. It rises to a level increasing as the square of the flow; and something of this kind may perhaps occur with the stream of heat. The subject, however, would require a careful examination, and various new experiments made in a more accurate manner than has yet been done. It is much to be regretted that Buffon did not make use of a thermometer to measure the actual heat in the focus of the mirror. We have no doubt that a few observations with this instrument, or still better with Leslie's thermometric photometer, would lead to curious results.

Besides the above experiments, which were made on the first trials of the mirror, a great number of other experiments were afterwards made, which all confirmed the first. Wood was kindled at 200 feet, and even at 210 feet, with the summer's sun, every time the sky was clear; and with four such mirrors it might be done at 400 feet, and perhaps farther. All the metals also, and metallic minerals, were melted at twenty-five, thirty, and forty feet. It took about half an hour to mount the mirror, and to make all the images coincide in one point; but when it is

once adjusted it will serve at all times for any particular distance; but if the focus is to be changed, it will take half an hour to do this,—to change, for example, from 100 feet to 150 feet. The above experiments were made publicly in the Jardin du Roi.

The mirror represented in fig. 6 has 360 glasses. The frame is supported on the axis AB, round which it can be turned by means of the rack FG, and the pinion and handle HK. The axis rests on the two uprights AL BM, which are firmly fixed by mortises into the bottom piece OQ, and cross piece ab, and steadied by diagonals; the uprights and frame are movable round an upright pillar or axis, the feet being provided with rollers to cause the whole mirror to turn easily round. The upright pillar or axis is fixed in the centre of a broad square, or sole of wood, which is capable of turning on rollers or castors, and the whole is moved in any direction. Each of the glasses is fixed on a square plate of metal ABCD, fig. 12, movable on an axis CD, which turns on a small frame, seen from behind in fig. 10, and in front in fig. 11: the screw FE pressing against the back of the plate, and the spring L resisting and pressing in the opposite direction, the plate is held firm in its position, and by turning the screw in or out the angle of the glass is altered. The whole frame and plate are besides movable round another axis CD, perpendicular to the former; this motion being regulated and directed by screws and springs in the same manner: and thus the glass having a universal motion, can easily be set so as to throw the reflection in any direction, and all the glasses by the same means directed towards one point or focus.

Such are the effects and construction of the celebrated mirror of Buffon, which actually set fire to wood at so considerable a distance; and proves, therefore, clearly the practicability, with such an apparatus, of setting fire to a vessel at the same distance. That it proves, however, the actual fact related of Archimedes, seems to admit of considerable doubts. A distinguished philosopher in the end of the eighteenth century, with all the advantages of the amazing progress of science and the arts up to that period, has, after a laborious research and numerous experiments with all the leisure of philosophical inquiry, at last succeeded in constructing a combination of mirrors, which inflames combustible materials at a distance, and in a convenient situation. But when we consider the low state of the arts in the time of the Syracusan philosopher, the inferior reflecting power of any mirror then in use, the difficulty and expense of procuring such a number as would be necessary, and of combining them together so as to act with facility and effect on an enemy's fleet,—seeing that even in Buffon's apparatus it took half an hour to bring the mirrors to a focus; and, therefore, in the case of a vessel in motion, it would be next to impossible to follow it, and keep all the glasses steadily directed to one point,—if we consider all these circumstances, the difficulties of the undertaking must appear so enormously increased, that it seems to be no disparagement to the genius even of Archimedes to require stronger proof than has yet been adduced to convince us of the fact; and particularly, as Polybius, Livy, and Plutarch, who have described the prodigies of his mechanical skill, are silent in regard to this, which would have been as wonderful as any, and was calculated to excite fully greater astonishment. That Archimedes had conceived such an idea, and perhaps in part reduced it to practice, appears certain from so many concurring testimonies; but that he actually reduced the Roman fleet to ashes, is probably only one of those exaggerations to which every action, in any degree marvellous, naturally gives rise.

Since the time of Buffon scarcely any thing further has

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mirror of
Archimedes
doubtful.

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mirrors.

been done on the subject of these compound burning mirrors; and as the subject is one more of curiosity than of real utility, for, as to its application as an engine of war, it is now out of the question, enough has perhaps been done. In Peyrard's edition of the works of Archimedes, however, there is a memoir on the subject by the translator, who seems to have bestowed a good deal of attention on the subject, and suggested various ingenious improvements on the mode of combining the mirrors, and directing them with facility to any object even though in motion; but he does not seem actually to have constructed any on this plan. To direct and change so many mirrors quickly would require evidently several operators at the same time, as each mirror must be set separately. But it is extremely difficult in the ordinary way for different hands to act in concert, because if any one of the glasses, for instance, were out of the focus, it would be impossible to tell which it was, and each operator would be moving his own, and thus deranging the whole. Peyrard, therefore, proposes to furnish each mirror with a telescope, adjustable in such a manner that, being turned to any object, the reflected rays from the mirror should fall in the same direction. The adjusting apparatus consists of a telescope attached parallel to the sides of the mirror, and also capable of turning on its axis and carrying the mirror round with it. The mirror is besides capable of turning on an axis of its own, perpendicular to that of the telescope, and by this double motion the adjustment is effected. The mirror is first turned on the axis of the telescope until its own particular axis becomes perpendicular to the plane of the incident and reflected rays; and this is done by observing when the shadow of the edge of the frame of the mirror falls on a particular point, marked on an index projecting from the telescope. The mirror is then turned on its own axis until the angle of incidence becomes equal to the angle formed by the mirror and telescope; and this is known by a shadow made through an opening in the silver of the mirror falling on a particular spot in the index. In this manner one operator can adjust all the mirrors entrusted to him with accuracy and facility, and without knowing at all what the others are doing. The apparatus is represented at fig. 7, and the following is Peyrard's description.

Where AB is a common telescope with only one tube, containing the object-glass at B, and the eye-glass at A. The tube is movable on its axis between the two collars CC, CC', which are fixed to a piece of metal, DD. This piece of metal is supported on a stand like a common telescope, having a vertical and horizontal motion, by which the axis of the telescope may be directed with facility to any given point. The axis of the instrument is marked out by the intersection of a pair of cross wires placed in the anterior focus of the eye-glass; and when this point of intersection is directed to any object, the whole instrument is kept steady in its place by the screws F and G, the former of which prevents any motion in a vertical direction, and the latter in a horizontal direction. From the middle of the tube AB rises a cylindrical piece of metal MM, and upon the eye-glass extremity a branch of iron HHH, wrought square, is fixed firmly in a direction parallel to the axis of the cylindrical piece MM.

A plane silvered glass mirror LL, inserted into a proper frame, is made to turn on two pivots, one of which, *m m*, rests on the cylinder MM, while the other, *o o*, is inserted in the horizontal part of the branch HHH. The straight line which passes through the centre of these pivots must be exactly parallel to the silvered back of the mirror, and at right angles to the axis of the telescope, and the black mark N, produced by a scratch upon the silvered surface, must be bisected by the axis of the mirror.

Above the object end B of the tube is fixed a plate of metal, seen in the figure; and behind this plate is seen another square plate, *z z*, on which are shown the lines *x x*, *y y*, crossing each other at right angles. By means of a piece of brass fixed to the last of these plates, and traversing a square hole made in the other plate, the square plate may be moved up and down, and from right to left; and it is kept in any position which is thus given to it, by a screw on the back of the fixed plate. The movable square plate must be adjusted in such a manner that the line *x x* may intersect the axis of the telescope, and be parallel to the axis *o m* of the mirror. The position of the line *y y* must also be such that its distance from the axis of the telescope is equal to the distance of the line IK from the same axis. When the plate *z z* is thus adjusted, the straight line *y y* will always be in the same plane with the line IK, whatever may be the position of the mirror; and a line drawn from a point at N, where the axis of the mirror cuts IK, to the point where *y y* intersects *x x*, will be parallel to the axis of the telescope.

The spring QQ' is fixed at Q to the arm HH, and by a screw R working into its other extremity Q' the end H of the horizontal arm may be made to press the pivot *o o* upon the frame of the mirror. The horizontal branch HHH, which is represented separately in fig. 10, is surrounded with several pieces. The piece *d d* and pivot *o o* are fixed in an invariable manner. The pivot *o o* is inserted in a square hole through the piece VV, and through the extremity of the arm HHH. The piece *d d* may be moved either before or behind by turning the screw; and the piece VV may be moved from right to left with the piece *d d* by means of the screw S.

The apparatus being thus constructed, the next thing to be considered is the method of adjusting it. In order to effect this, the axis of the mirror must be perpendicular to the axis of the telescope; the line drawn from a point near N, where the axis of the mirror cuts the line IK, to the point of intersection of *x x* and *y y*, must be parallel to IK, and the straight line *y y* must always be in the same plane with IK.

The mirror is first placed in such a manner that the line IK is at right angles to the axis of the telescope. By turning the screw L, the lower edge of the frame is made a tangent to the circular surface MM; which is parallel to the axis of the telescope. The screw L is then turned in order to fix the piece *d d* in an invariable manner.

The axis of the telescope is next directed to a point on a plane surface placed at a certain distance. This point must be situated in a vertical plane, perpendicular to the plane surface, and passing through the eye of the observer and the centre of the sun. A horizontal line being drawn through this point, a second point is taken, as far from the first as the centre of the mirror is distant from the axis of the object-glass. By unscrewing S, turning the telescope on its axis, and the mirror also about its own axis, the piece VV is moved backwards or forwards until the centre of the reflected image falls upon the second point. The square plate *z z* is then adjusted in such a manner that the shadow of the line IK falls on the line *y y*, and that the shadow of NN is bisected by the line *x x*. When this happens, the plate *z z* is firmly fixed. Hence it follows that whenever this adjustment is made, and when the intersection of the cross wires of the telescope is directed to any point, the rays reflected by the mirror will be parallel to the axis of the telescope, and will always continue so while the shadow of IK falls on *y y*, and while the shadow of NN is bisected by *x x*.

In making use of the mirror, the intersection of the cross wires must be first directed to any point of the ob-

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ject with which is to be inflamed. The telescope must next be turned round in the collars CC, CC', till the shadow of the line IK falls upon $y y$; and finally, the mirror must be turned about its own axis till the shadow of NN is bisected by the line $x x$. The centre of the reflected image will consequently fall upon a point of the object as far distant from the point to which the intersection of the lines was directed, as the mirror is distant from the axis of the telescope. The image may obviously be preserved in this position as long as we choose, by keeping the shadow of IK and N in the same position.

Calculation of P_{cyt}

The above apparatus is certainly well contrived for effecting its object, but seems at the same time rather complex and expensive for any purpose to which such a mirror might be required. In regard to the power of such a combination of mirrors, M. Peyrard has only made some calculations founded on the observations of Buffon. In the first place, in regard to the effect of the distance of the mirrors from the object, he calculates that, with one about eighteen inches diameter, the rays are so diffused as to reduce the heating effect to one half at 66 feet; to one third at 118 feet; to one fourth at 161 feet; to one fifth at 200 feet; and to one tenth at 348 feet. The next question is, how many times the distance of the object and glass, how many times the sun's heat must be multiplied by the glasses to produce inflammation, or boiling or fusing of metals, or any other similar effects, in order to calculate how many glasses would be sufficient for the purpose, such reflection being, as Buffon found, one half of the sun's heat. This question is solved by Peyrard, from the observations of Buffon already stated, allowing for the distances by the above rule, and reducing them all to the shortest, or when the object is placed as close as possible to the glasses. Hence he finds, that on the 23d March, calculating for the number of glasses and the distance, four times the heat of the sun would set fire to a plank of tarred beech, and $\frac{1}{2}$ of time to a plank of silver and one of gold; and on the 10th of April a plank of tarred iron was set fire to by $\frac{1}{2}$ times the sun's heat; 3dly, on the 11th of April a plank of beech which had been already on fire was inflamed by $\frac{1}{2}$ times the sun's heat. The same day small combustible materials were inflamed with three times the sun's heat, and also a block of tin weighing six pounds was melted by $1\frac{1}{2}$ times the sun's heat; also thin pieces of silver were melted, and a plate of iron made red hot, by 29 $\frac{1}{2}$ times the sun's heat; and Peyrard on the whole draws the conclusion, in the view of setting fire to a fleet of ships, that five times the heat of the sun would be sufficient to inflame tarred planks, and eight times this heat would be sufficient to inflame all sorts of wood, and also to consume all sorts of iron and lead. As to the regard to distance, that sixteen of these glasses would be sufficient to inflame wood at the distance of 66 feet; twenty-four at 118 feet; thirty-two at 161 feet; forty at 200; eighty at 348; and at 3750, or nearly three quarters of a mile, it would require 590.

In regard to these calculations, and particularly that of the effect of the sun's heat, it appears so much beyond of what might naturally be looked for, that its accuracy must well be questioned; and it is surprising this should have escaped the notice of the author, and of succeeding writers, who have copied without comment all these results. If four times the sun's heat be sufficient to inflame wood, then eight glasses would do it at a small distance, which is hardly credible. At any rate, if it be so, it implies an accumulation of heat which is quite unaccountable on any of the usual principles on which this fluid acts. In fact, we have already seen, from the observations of the photometer, that the greatest effect of the sun's heat in our latitude does not exceed sixteen degrees. Supposing this the amount

of it in France in the month of April, four times this would only be sixty-four degrees, while the heat of inflammation cannot be less than 800°, twelve times what Peyrard supposes. Again, thirty times the sun's heat would only amount to 480°; and yet he says that silver was melted with this heat, which requires a temperature of 4500°, nearly ten times as much. We have already stated and explained how much the effects of Buffon's mirrors exceed what might reasonably be expected from their concentrative power. But these calculations carry them still farther. The difference seems to arise from the principle on which Peyrard has calculated the effect of distance. He supposes it to diminish as the square of the distance from a point situated so far behind the mirror, that the latter subtends at that point the same angle with the sun, as at fig. B, where AB is the diameter of the glass, AG and BG two lines, one from each extremity of the glass, and forming together an angle, AGB, of 32°. These lines being prolonged, indicate the boundary of the extreme rays reflected from the glass; and the sections ML ON RS of the cone diminish as the square of GD GF and G. In this view it would be to suppose that if all the light proceeded from a point G, so that all the rays would be parallel. This, however, is far from being the case, as all the rays which fall on the glass from any given point of the sun are reflected in lines sensibly parallel, which do not diverge from that or any other point, and cannot therefore suffer diminution from distance. This calculation, therefore, would require considerable modification; and the whole subject would require, as already stated, to be re-examined experimentally.

Such are the compound mirrors which have been made single on the principle of that of Archimedes. In regard to single reflectors, concave mirrors, a great many of these have been constructed at different periods, remarkable for their powerful effects. We shall just describe some of the principal ones. M. Yillette's is a French one, of the size of a French foot, and weighing more than five mirrors of this kind, of considerable magnitude, mirrors. One of them was bought by M. d'Alibert for 1500 livres; another was purchased by Tavernier, and presented to the king of Persia; a third was sent by the French king to the Royal Academy; a fourth was bought by the king of Denmark; and the fifth was brought to England for public exhibition. The first of these was 12 feet in diameter, and weighed about a hundredweight. Its focal length was about three feet, and the size of the sun's image was about half a louis d'or. It was mounted on a circular frame of steel, and could easily be put into any required position. This mirror was made in 1670, and having been brought to St Germain by order of the king, his majesty was so well pleased with it, that he ordered for it with a hundred crowns for the purchase of it, and afterwards purchased it and placed it in the Royal Observatory of Paris. The effects were the following:

Seconds.

A small piece of pot iron was melted in.....	24
A silver piece of fifteen pence was pierced in.....	40
A thick nail (<i>le clou de peyan</i>) melted in.....	39
The end of a world blade of Olinde burnt in.....	43
A brass cursor was pierced in.....	6
A piece of red copper was melted in.....	42
A piece of chamber quartzstone was vitrified in.....	45
Watch-spring steel melted in.....	9
A mineral stone, such as is used in harghuesoues <i>a'rouet</i> , was calcined and vitrified in.....	1
A piece of mortar was vitrified in.....	52
Green wood and other bodies took fire instantly.	

The mirror of M. Vilette which was brought to England was put into the hands of Dr Harris and Dr Desaguliers, who made several trials with it. It was a composi-

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tion of copper, tin, and tin glass; and its reflection had something of a yellow cast. There were only a few small flaws in the concave surface, but there were some holes in the convex side, which was polished. The diameter of the mirror was 47 inches, its radius of curvature 76 inches, and its focal length 38 inches. The following results were obtained in June 1718, between nine and twelve o'clock in the morning, and the time was measured by a half-second pendulum.

	Seconds.
A red piece of Roman patera began to melt in.....	3
and was ready to drop in.....	100
A black piece of the same melted in.....	64
and was ready to drop in.....	64
Chalk taken out of an echinus spatagus filled with chalk only fled away in.....	23
A fossil shell calcined in.....	7
and did no more in.....	64
The black part of a piece of Pompey's pillar melted in.....	50
and the white part in.....	54
Copper ore, with no metal visible, vitrified in.....	8
Slag or cinder of the iron work said to have been wrought by the Saxons was ready to run in.....	29½
The mirror now became hot, and burned with much less force.	

	Seconds.
Iron ore fled at first, but melted in.....	24
Talc began to calcine at.....	40
and held in the focus.....	64
Calculus humanus was calcined in.....	2
and only dropped off in.....	60
The tooth of an anonymous fish melted in.....	32½
The asbestos seemed condensed a little in.....	28

But it now became cloudy. M. Vilette says that the mirror usually calcines asbestos.

A golden marcheite broke, and began to melt in.....	30
A silver sixpence melted in.....	7½
A King William's copper halfpenny melted in.....	20
and ran with a hole in it.....	31
A King George's halfpenny melted in.....	16
and ran in.....	34
Tin melted in.....	3
Cast iron melted in.....	16
Slate melted in.....	3
and had a hole in.....	6
Thin tile melted in.....	4
and had a hole and was vitrified through in.....	80
Bone calcined in.....	4
and vitrified in.....	33
An emerald was melted into a substance like Turquoise stone, and a diamond that weighed 4 grains lost ¾ths of its weight.	

This mirror was made by M. Vilette some years after the first, and with the assistance of his two sons. It came into the possession of M. Vilette the son, engineer and optician to his electoral highness of Cologne, bishop and prince of Liege, where he commonly resides. At the desire of several learned men, M. Vilette brought it to London, where its effects were exhibited in Priory Garden, Whitehall.

Maginus
and Man-
fredi.

Large burning mirrors were made by Maginus, and by Manfredi, canon of Milan, one twenty inches diameter, and the other three and a half feet; but, from the accounts of them in the *Philosophical Transactions*, they appear to have had but a feeble power compared with those of Vilette.

Garouste's
mirror.

In the year 1685 M. de la Garouste presented to the Academy of Sciences a large metallic mirror, five feet two inches in diameter, and five feet in focal length. It was not equally polished, and a piece was inserted in the middle of it where the metal had failed. This circum-

stance, however, did not seem to diminish its force. Several trials were made with this mirror in the academy, by order of M. de Louvois, but the precise effects which it produced have not been detailed. It is merely stated that those who tried it were satisfied with the results, and that its effects would have been much greater had it been better polished, and mounted upon a proper stand.

On the 27th of February 1667-8, Francis Smethwick, Smeth-Esq. produced before the Royal Society two burning con-wick's cave glasses, ground of a *newly invented figure*, which was mirror. probably that of a parabola. One of them was six inches diameter, with three inches of focal length; and the other was of the same diameter, with its focus ten inches distant. When these were brought towards a large lighted candle, they somewhat warmed the faces of those that were four or five feet distant; and when held to the fire, they burnt gloves and garments at the distance of about three feet from the fire. At another experiment made in the presence of Dr Seth Ward, the deeper of the two burned a piece of wood into flame in the space of ten seconds, and the shallower one in five seconds. This experiment was made in autumn, at nine o'clock in the morning, when the weather was gloomy. By exposing the deeper concave to a northern window on which the sun did not shine, it was found to warm the hand by "collecting the warmed air in the day time, which it would not do after sunset."

This last effect is extremely remarkable; it must have arisen from the mirror collecting the radiations of heat from the distant atmosphere warmed by the heat of the day. The existence of these radiations was then perfectly unknown, and not suspected, indeed, until they were discovered only a few years ago by Professor Leslie, and actually measured by the ethiroscope.

The burning mirror to which we have already alluded, made by the celebrated Tachimhausen, was formed of this copperplate, about one sixteenth of an inch thick. According to one account it was about three Leipicic ellis, equal to five feet diameter, and burnt at the distance of three feet and a half. According to another its diameter was four feet and a half, and its focal distance twelve feet.

The following are its effects:—

1. A piece of wood held in the focus flames in a moment, so that a fresh wind can hardly put it out.
2. Water applied in an earthen vessel immediately boils; and the vessel being kept there some time, the water evaporates all away.
3. A piece of tin or lead three inches thick melts away in drops as soon as it is put in the focus; and when held there a little time is in a *perfect floor*, so that in two or three minutes it is quite pierced through.
4. A plate of iron or steel becomes immediately red hot, and soon after a hole is burnt through it.
5. Copper, silver, &c. melt in five or six minutes.
6. Stones, brick, &c. soon become red hot.
7. Slate becomes red hot, but in a few minutes turns into a fine sort of black glass.
8. Tiles which had been exposed to the most intense heat of fire melt down into a yellow glass.
9. Pot-shreds that had been much used in the fire melt into a blackish yellow glass.
10. Pumice stone melts into a white transparent glass.
11. A piece of a very strong crucible melted into a glass in eight minutes.
12. Bones were converted into a kind of opaque glass, and a clod of earth into a yellow or greenish glass.
13. The beams of the full moon when at her greatest altitude were concentrated by this speculum; but no perceptible degree of heat was experienced.

A plan for constructing burning mirrors of wood gilded

Burning
Glasses.

Burning Glasses. over was proposed by Zacharias Quakenbush, in his work *In Nerro Optico*. They were joined in twenty, or even a hundred concave pieces, on a turned wooden dish or scuttle, and the surface coated with pitch and gilded.

Neuman mirror. It is possible to construct mirrors of still more slender materials; and Zahnus, in his work *In Oculo Artificio*, fundam. 3, states, that an engineer of Vienna of the name of Neuman formed burning mirrors of pasteboard, covered in the inside with straw glued to it; and that they were capable of melting metals almost instantly. It is evident from what we have stated, that mirrors of this kind, from the great surface exposed, and the concentration in a perfect form not being absolutely necessary, may produce very powerful effects.

Hoesen and Ehrhard's mirrors. Parabolic mirrors of a large size and very considerable power were constructed by M. Hoesen of Dresden, and afterwards by M. Ehrhard. These mirrors were composed of several pieces of solid wood, and on the convex part were pieces of wood, both diverging from the vertex and transversely, nicely fitted and strengthened. The concave part of this framing was covered with copperplate one eighth of an inch in thickness, four and a half feet long, and two and a half feet broad, so as to resemble one piece finely polished. The speculum was so supported as to be easily managed, and the anterior part of it was substituted by an iron arch half an inch thick. The middle of this arch, which coincided with the place of the burning focus, was perforated into a ring, which supported from both sides an iron fork for receiving the body to be examined. Four of M. Ehrhard's mirrors constructed in this way had the following dimensions:—

No.	Perimeter.		Diameter or Ordinate		Depth or Absciss.		Focal Length.
	Feet.	Inches.	Feet.	Inches.	Feet.	Inches.	Feet.
1	29	4	1	4	1	4	1
2	21	0	6	8	0	10½	3
3	16	4	5	1	0	10½	1
4	13	2½	4	2	0	7	1

The celebrated Wolfius, who had witnessed the effects of these mirrors, states that in burning, calcining, melting, and vitrifying, they far exceeded any thing of the kind ever known. The hardest stones scarcely resisted a few seconds. Metals were rapidly perforated, and vegetables and bones were immediately burnt to a cinder and vitrified.

Dr Gregory's burning mirror. Our celebrated countryman Dr James Gregory turned his attention to the construction of burning machines about the year 1670; and in a letter to Mr Collins, dated St Andrews, 7th March 1673, he states his views on this subject, and requests Mr Collins to communicate them to Sir Isaac Newton, who returns a favourable opinion of the invention in a letter to Mr Collins. The passages in these letters are too interesting to be given in any other form than in the original words of these distinguished authors.

"Mr Newton's discourse of reflection," says Dr Gregory, "puts me in mind of a notion I had of burning glasses several years ago, which appears to me more useful than subtle. If ther be a concave speculum of glasse, the leaded convex surface having the same center with the concave, or to speak preciselie, albeit perchance to little more purpose, let the radius of the convexitie be c, the thickness of the glasse in *axis transitu* f, the radius of

the convexitie equal to $\frac{9c^2 + 18cf + 5f^2}{9c + f}$, this speculum

Burning Glasses. shall have the *foci* of both the surfaces in the same point; and not onlie that, but all the rays which are relected betwixt the two surfaces, sall, in their egresse, come, *quam proximè*, to the common focus. The making of such an speculum requirith not much more art than an ordinar plane glasse, seing great subtiltie is not necessary here; so that I believe they who mak the plane miroir glasses, would mak one of these, three foot in diameter, for four or five pounds sterling, or little more: for I have seen plane glasses, almost of that bignes, sold even here for less money. Now seing (as Mr Newton observeth) that al reflecting mettals lose more than one third of the rayes; this concave glasse, even *ceteris paribus*, would have an great advantage of a mettall one; for certaintie an exactlie polished thin miroir glasse, of good transparent mater, after a few reflections, doeth not lose one fourth of the rayes; and, upon other accounts, this hath incomparable advantages, seing it is more portable, free from tarnishing, and, above all, hardlie $\frac{1}{10}$ th of the value. The great usefulness of burning concaves, this being so obvious, and as yet (for quhat I kno) untouched by anie, makes me jealous that there may be in the practice some fallacie. Ye may communicate this to intelligent persons, and especiallie to Mr Newton; assuring him that none hath a greater veneration for him, admiring more his great and subtle inventions, than his and yours.

"P. S. If ye please, let me hear, with the first convenience, what may be judged the result of this burning concave; for I am as much concerned to be undeceived, if ther be any insuperable difficultie, as to be informed of an most surprising success. I have spoke of it to severals here, but al were as ignorant of it as my self." &c.

Sir Isaac Newton's reply to Mr Collins is dated Cambridge, April 9th, 1673, and contains the following passage:—

"The design of the burning speculum appears to me very plausible, and worthy of being put in practice. What artists may think of it I know not; but the greatest difficulty in the practice that occurs to me, is to proportion the two surfaces so that the force of both may be in the same point according to the theory. But perhaps it is not necessary to be so curious; for it seems to me that the effect would scarce be sensibly less, if both sides should be reduced to the concave and gage of the same tool," &c. &c.

The attention of Sir Isaac Newton being thus accident-Sir Isaac tally directed to the subject of burning instruments, he Newton's procured seven concave glass mirrors, each of which was mirrors. eleven and a half inches in diameter, and six of these were placed round the seventh, and contiguous, but so as to have one common focus. The general focal length was twenty-two inches and a half, and about an inch in diameter. It melted gold in about half a minute, and vitrified brick or tile in one second. The effect of these speculae was obviously much less than seven times the effect of any one of them. The rays of the sun could fall perpendicularly only on the one in the middle; and, in consequence of this obliquity of incidence, none of the speculae intercepted a column of rays of the same diameter, and the image formed in the focus of each could not be exactly circular.

Burning mirrors composed of glass were constructed by Zeiher's mirrors.

¹ No account of this burning glass of Sir Isaac Newton's is given in the *Philosophical Transactions*; and we are informed, upon very good authority, that no such instrument is in the possession of the Royal Society. Mr Derham, however, a fellow of the Royal Society, gives the same account which we have followed in the text. (See Derham's *Astrotheologia*, lib. vii. cap. 1. note.)

Burning
Glasses.

M. Zeiher of St Petersburg. His object was to convert plates of plain glass into concave mirrors, which he effected by placing the glass upon a convex tool, and exposing it to a strong heat, till it assumed the exact curvature of the tool. Zeiher made numerous trials with plates of various sizes, and, after several failures, he succeeded in finding the proper method of conducting the operation. No particular difficulties occurred in giving the proper shape to plates five or six inches in diameter; but, in forming one of sixteen inches, the circumference was moulded to the tool before the central parts, where a number of vesicles of air had collected; and, in some other cases, the glasses cracked after they had received the proper shape. The following method is that which Zeiher always found to succeed:—

A small bit of the glass to be used must first be exposed to the fire till it becomes red hot, and if, after cooling, it has preserved its polish and transparency, the glass is fit for the required purpose; for it sometimes happens that the glass becomes quite black after the operation. The plate of glass is next placed on a concave iron dish of the required curvature, and put into a furnace. Coals are placed below and above the dish, and on all sides of it. The greatest care must then be taken that the glass shall become equally hot both at the circumference and at the centre; for if the red colour should get deeper in the middle, the glass will be in great danger. As soon as the whole is red hot, the instant of its bending to the shape of the mould must be carefully watched; and when this happens, which may be observed from the reflected images of the surrounding coals, all the fire must be removed from above the glass, and also a great part of the fire at its sides. The glass must then be covered with warm ashes, that have been passed through a sieve, and it must be allowed to cool gradually. It is of the utmost importance to mark the precise moment when the glass applies itself to the surface of the mould; for, if it remain too long, a part of the scorie which separates from the mould will adhere to the glass. When the glass is covered with the hot ashes the fire must still be allowed to remain below the mould, lest the glass should crack by being cooled too suddenly. When the glass is taken from the furnace, its convex sides may then be silvered for a burning speculum; or, if a lens is required, two of the pieces of glass may be joined, so as to contain a fluid.

M. Zeiher also constructed burning glasses by making a concave frame of wood, and covering the concave surface with a paste made of flour, chalk, &c. till it had the requisite degree of curvature. A number of pieces of silverized glass mirrors, about half an inch square, were then fixed upon the concave side, so as to constitute a polygonal reflecting surface.

Buffon also, besides the experiments already related, made a good many on the bending of flat plates into a curve. He took circular plates of glass about eighteen inches, two feet, and three feet, in diameter, and having perforated them at the centre with an aperture two or three lines in diameter, he placed them in a circle of iron that was truly turned. A very fine screw, connected with

a box stretching across the back of the glass, passed through the hole in the centre into a nut on the other side, so that by turning the screw the circular piece of flat glass was gradually incurvated till it formed a concave mirror. The glass of three feet diameter, when it was bent about five eighths of a line, had its focus fifty feet distant, and set fire to light substances; when it was bent two lines, it burned at the distance of forty feet; when it was bent two and three-fourth lines, its focal length was thirty feet; but in attempting to reduce its focal length to twenty feet, it was broken in pieces. The glass of two feet diameter shared the same fate; but the one of eighteen inches, which had a focal length of twenty-five feet, was preserved as a model of this species of mirror. The accident which happened to the two largest of these mirrors appears to have been owing to the perforation in the centre. In order to remedy this evil, Buffon proposed to place a circular piece of glass at the extremity of a cylindrical drum, made of iron or copper, and completely air tight. The cavity being exhausted by means of an air-pump, the glass at one extremity would be pressed in by the weight of the atmosphere, and would have its focal length inversely proportional to the degree of refraction. This contrivance is represented in fig. 1, Plate CXLIII, and also a section of it.

A still more simple and ingenious method of exhausting the air in the drum was contrived by Buffon. He proposed to grind the central part of the plain glass into the form of a small convex glass, and in the focus of this convex portion to place a sulphur match, so that when the mirror was directed to the sun, the rays concentrated by the convex portion would inflame the match, which, being set on fire, would absorb the air, and thus produce a partial vacuum, and consequently an incurvation of the plain glass.¹ See fig. 2.

Mirrors of this kind, with a movable focus, were regarded by Buffon as of great use for measuring the effects of the solar rays, when concentrated into foci of different sizes. As the quantity of incident light and heat is nearly the same to whatever curvature the glass is successively bent, we might thus determine the size of focus by which a maximum effect was produced.

Buffon likewise made a number of concave mirrors by bending plates of glass on moulds of a spherical form. Some of these were as large as three, four, four feet six, and four feet eight inches, in diameter; but the utmost care is requisite in the formation of those of such a large diameter. After these glasses were moulded to the proper shape in appropriate furnaces, their concave and convex sides were carefully ground so as to be perfectly concentric, and the convex side was afterwards silvered by M. de Bernieres. Out of twenty-four mirrors of this kind which Buffon had moulded, he was able to preserve only three, the rest having broken, either by exposure to the air, or in the operation of grinding. One of these three, which was forty-six inches in diameter, was presented to the king of France, and was regarded as the most powerful burning mirror in Europe. The other two were thirty-seven inches in diameter, and one of them was deposited in the Cabinet of Natural History in the Jardin du

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Glasses.

Buffon's
mirrors of
bended
plates.

¹ Instead of grinding the central part of the glass plate into a convex form, Zeiher proposes that a small burning glass should be applied to inflame the sulphur; or, what is still better than either of these plans, a convex lens might be fastened, by the balsam of Tolu, or any transparent cement, to the centre of the glass plate.

M. Zeiher employed a more effectual method of bending circular plates of glass than that which was used by Buffon. The circular piece of glass was placed in an iron ring, across which was fixed a thin piece of iron, with a hole containing a female screw, so placed as to be above the centre of the glass. A strong bar of brass was also placed across the centre of the speculum; and a screw working in the centre of this, and in the female screw already mentioned, pressed the thin iron bar against the glass, and bent it into the proper curvature. A plate of Venetian glass, two lines thick and twenty Rhinland inches in diameter, was bent in this way till it protruded two lines in the middle, so as to have a focal length of fifteen feet, which is a greater curvature in proportion than any of Buffon's. The glass was kept in this state for several days without suffering any injury. (See *Nov. Comment. Petrop.* 1786, 1789, p. 230, note.)

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Roi. Buffon concentrated the rays of the moon by means of the mirror of forty-six inches diameter; but, though his thermometer was very sensible, no heat was perceived.

Burning
lenses.
Tschir-
hausen's
lens.

In regard to burning lenses, the first of any magnitude were constructed by M. Tschirhausen. These were compound glasses: the light, after passing through one large glass, being still further concentrated by a second smaller one. The large glasses were three and four feet in diameter, their focal length was about twelve feet, and the focal image about one and a half inch diameter. The focal image of the smaller glass did not exceed eight lines. The large lens, which weighed 160 pounds, was purchased by the Duke of Orleans, and presented by him to the French Academy. The following are the remarkable effects produced by it:—

1. All sorts of wood, whether hard or green, and even when wet, were burnt in an instant.
2. Water in a small vessel boiled immediately.
3. All the metals, when the pieces were of a proper size, were easily melted.
4. Tiles, slates, delft ware, pumice stone, talc, whatever was their size, grew red and vitrified.
5. Sulphur, pitch, and resins, melted under water.
6. When the metals were placed in charcoal, they melted more readily, and were completely dissipated.
7. The ashes of wood, vegetables, paper, and cloth, were converted into a transparent glass.
8. All the metals were vitrified upon a plate of porcelain. Gold received a fine purple colour.
9. Substances that would not melt in pieces were easily melted in powder; and those that resisted the heat in this form melted by adding a little salt.
10. A substance easily fused assists in melting more refractory substances when placed along with them in the focus; and it is very singular, that two substances which are very difficult to melt separately, are very easily melted when exposed together, such as flint and English chalk.
11. A piece of melted copper being thrown suddenly into cold water, produced such a violent concussion that the strongest earthen vessels were broken to pieces, and the copper was thrown off in such small particles that not a grain of it could be found. This did not happen with any other metal.
12. All bodies except the metals lose their colour. The precious stones are instantly deprived of it.
13. Certain bodies vitrify easily, and become as transparent as crystal; but by cooling they grow as white as milk, and lose all their transparency.
14. Other bodies that are opaque when melted become beautifully transparent when they are cooled.
15. Substances that are transparent both when melted and cold become opaque some days after.
16. Substances which the heat renders at first transparent, but which afterwards become opaque by being melted with other substances that are always opaque, produce a beautiful glass, always transparent.
17. The rays of the moon concentrated by this lens, though extremely brilliant, have no heat.

Buffon's fluid burn-
ing lenses.
M. de Buffon, whose ingenuity and research extended into every branch of this subject, constructed various burning lenses of different kinds. His first object was to form burning glasses, by combining two circular segments of a glass sphere so as to form a lenticular cavity to be filled with water. These glass segments were first moulded into their proper shape, and then regularly ground on both sides, so that the concave and convex surfaces were exactly parallel. The one which he constructed was thirty-seven inches in diameter, with a focal length of about five feet and a half; and the segments were of considerable thickness, to prevent them from

Burning
Glasses.

breaking or altering their form by the weight of the included water. This lens is represented at fig. 3. As the refractive power of water is very small, Buffon proposed to increase it by saturating it with salt; but notwithstanding every precaution, he found that the focus of lenses of this kind was never well terminated, nor reduced to its smallest size; and that the different refractions which the rays sustained produced a very great degree of aberration. Buffon also proposed to make each segment consist of a number of smaller segments put together into a frame; but as the water could not easily be prevented from insinuating itself between the joints of the segments, and as there would be a great difficulty in arranging them in the same spherical circumference, this kind of burning glass does not seem to have ever been executed.

Having made some experiments on the loss of light in Buffon's passing through thick glasses, Buffon found it very considerable, so that it detracted greatly from the power of large burning glasses, which must of necessity be proportionally thick in the centre. Bouguer had formerly estimated the loss of light in passing through glass one twelfth of an inch, at two sevenths of the whole. But the glass used by him must have been extremely imperfect; for Buffon found, with glass from St Gobin, the loss of light in passing through one twelfth of an inch, one seventh of the whole, or only half the amount of Bouguer's estimate. Through glass one third of an inch thick, the loss was about two thirds. Hence in very large lenses the central portions must become nearly quite inefficient, from the quantity of light obstructed by them. On considering this subject, Buffon conceived a very ingenious plan for obviating the effect, and which has since become of great importance, from the extensive application of it in France in the construction of the large lenses now used there with such advantage in the light-houses, in place of reflectors. It consisted in forming the lens, not of one mass, but of several detached pieces united together into one. The central portion was a lens of much smaller diameter than the one intended to be formed, not one third perhaps, but having the same focal distance, and being therefore much thinner than the central portion of a whole lens would be: round this a second portion is set, forming a complete zone, and filling up another third of the diameter of the glass; lastly, another similar zone round the second, forming the exterior portion of the lens. Each of these zones forms a portion of a lens of the same focal distance as the central one, only much thinner; and then we obtain a very large lens, and yet extremely thin in proportion, so as to pass a much larger quantity of light than the others. Fig. 4 is a view of one of this sort of lenses, and fig. 5 sections of several lenses, which will render it quite intelligible. This species of glass Buffon considers as the most perfect of the kind; and when it is made three feet diameter, and an inch and a fourth thick at the centre, and six feet focus, he thinks it will give a degree of heat four times greater than that of the most powerful lenses yet known. "I venture to predict," he says, "that this glass in pieces, which I have thought of for twenty years, will be one of the most useful instruments of physics." Instead of having each zone in one entire piece, it is obvious that, without altering the effect, the zones, as proposed by Dr Brewster, may be composed of two or more pieces, which facilitates the perfect execution; and this is the mode in which they are now constructed in France, constituting one of the most important improvements hitherto made in light-houses. Besides their thinness, these glasses possess other advantages. The pieces which compose the compound ones can be easily obtained, and selected of the purest kind and freest from flaws and veins; whereas in large lenses it was extremely difficult to obtain one entire mass of glass free from impurities and imperfections. The spherical aber-

Burning
Glasses.

ration, which is very considerable in large glasses, can here be avoided by making the exterior segments of such focal lengths as to throw the rays to the same point with the central part. Fig. 6 shows a section of one of these lenses, and a view of one of the pieces.

Trudaine's
lens.

The next burning lens of any magnitude was constructed by M. Bernier, for M. Trudaine de Montigny, an honorary member of the Royal Academy of Sciences. This gentleman, whose liberality and zeal deserve to be recorded, engaged to be at the expense of a large burning glass, formed under the direction of several commissioners named by the academy. This lens consisted of two spherical segments eight feet radius and eight lines thick. The lenticular cavity was four feet in diameter, and six inches and five lines thick at the centre, and was filled with spirits of wine, of which it held no less than 140 pints. The focal length of a zone at the circumference, about six or seven lines broad, was ten feet and six lines, the focal length of a portion at the centre, about six inches in diameter, was ten feet seven inches and five lines, the diameter of the focus was fourteen lines and three fourths. When the whole surface was covered, except a zone at the circumference of six or seven lines, the following were the foci of the different rays:

	Feet.	Inches.	Lines.	
Violet	9	6	$\frac{1}{4}$	from the centre of the lens.
Blue	9	7	$\frac{1}{10}$	
Yellow	10	2	3	
Orange	10	2	10	
Red	10	3	$\frac{1}{11}$	

The following experiments were made in October 1774, in the Jardin de l'Enfante, by MM. Trudaine, Macquer, Cadet, Lavoisier, and Brisson, the commissioners appointed by the academy.

1. The burning power of the anterior half of the lens was much greater than that of the exterior half.
2. On the 5th of October, after mid-day, the sky not being very clear, two farthings placed upon charcoal were completely melted in half a minute.
3. In order to melt forged iron, it was found necessary to concentrate the rays by a second lens eight inches and a half diameter, twenty-two inches eight lines in focal length, and placed at eight feet seven inches from the centre of the great lens. At this place the cone of rays was eight inches in diameter, and the burning focus, now reduced to eight lines in diameter, was one foot from the small lens.
4. In the focus of the small lens, upon a piece of hollow charcoal small pieces of forged iron were placed, which were instantly melted. After fusion, the metal bubbled up, and fumed like nitre in fusion, and then sent off a great number of sparks. This effect (which was observed during the experiments with Tschirnhausen's lens) always took place after the fusion of iron, forged iron, or steel.
5. In order to try the effect upon greater masses, pieces of forged iron, and the end of a nail, were exposed to the focus, and were melted in fifteen seconds. A piece of nail five lines long and one fourth of a line square, which was added to the rest, was instantly fused; and the same was

the case with a screw that had a round head, and was eight lines in length.

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Glasses.

6. Some days afterwards, a bar of steel, four inches long and four lines square, was exposed, so as to receive the focal image upon the middle of its length. This part was completely melted in five minutes, after having begun to run at the end of the second minute.

7. Platina, in grains, appeared to draw together, to diminish in bulk, and to prepare for fusion. A little after, it bubbled up and smoked. All the grains were united into one mass, without however forming a spherical button like other melted metals. After the platina had undergone this semifusion, it was not attracted by the magnet as it was before the operation.

8. A portion of platina, deprived of the iron which it contained, and therefore not affected by the magnet, lost a part of its bulk, smoked, and formed one mass, which was extended under the hammer.¹

9. Several experiments were made in order to find the lens that was most proper for collecting the rays after refraction by the large lens. A spirit of wine lens two feet in diameter and four feet focus, a solid lens eighteen inches in diameter and three feet focus, and another thirteen inches in diameter, were successively tried, but none of them produced such a powerful effect as the lens eight inches and a half in diameter, and twenty-two inches and eight lines focus, though it was full of vesicles and striae.

Messrs Cadet and Brisson made a number of experiments on the refractive power of different fluids, by inclosing them in the lens of M. Trudaine, and observing the variations in its focal length. The object of their experiments was to find a fluid that possessed a greater refractive power than spirits of wine, and was at the same time sufficiently cheap and transparent to be used between the glass segments. Liquid turpentine was the most refractive fluid that they employed; but as they found that its dispersive power was to that of crown-glass as 34 to 28, this fluid was obviously, on this account, unfit for the purpose.² The fluid which they preferred was a saturated solution of sal-ammoniac or distilled water.

The most powerful burning-glass that has yet been constructed was made by Mr Parker of Fleet Street. After a great number of experiments, and an expense of above £700, this able artist succeeded in completing a burning lens of flint-glass three feet in diameter. This powerful instrument is represented in fig. 7. The large lens, which is placed in the ring at A, is doubly convex, and when fixed in its frame, it exposes a surface of two feet eight inches and a half. It is three and a fourth inches thick at the centre, its focal distance is six feet eight inches, the diameter of the burning focus one inch, and the weight of the lens 212 pounds. The rays that were refracted by this lens were received (according to the method of Tschirnhausen) upon a second lens B, whose diameter is sixteen inches out of the frame, and thirteen inches in the frame; its central thickness is an inch and five eighths. The length of its focus is twenty-nine inches, the diameter of the focal image three eighths of an inch, and the weight of the lens twenty-one pounds. The combined focal length of these lenses is five feet three inches, and the diameter of the focus half an inch. These

¹ Messrs Macquer and Beausne are said to have melted small grains of platina by a concave glass twenty-two inches in diameter and twenty-eight inches focus.

² Cadet and Brisson, in the course of their experiments, were led to the discovery of achromatic fluid object-glasses, a discovery which has hitherto been referred to a much later date. This discovery is most distinctly contained in the following passage. "Comme la tétréfontine cause une dispersion de rayons assez différente de celle que cause le verre, comme nous nous en sommes assurés par l'expérience, ne pourrions nous pas faire des objectifs dans lesquels pour les rendre achromatiques, on ferait usage de cette résine à la place du flint-glass, matière si difficile à se procurer d'une densité uniforme, et sans défauts, surtout en grands morceaux; mais le développement de cette idée nous meneroit trop loin, et ne fait pas partie de notre sujet actuel!" (*Mém. Acad. Par. 1777*, p. 551.)

Burning-Glasses. lenses are placed at the extremities of a truncated conical frame, consisting of twelve ribs of wood. Near the smaller end B is fixed a rack D, which passes through the pillar L, and is movable by means of a pinion within the pillar, driven by the handle E. A bar of wood F, fixed at G, between the two lower ribs of the cone, carries an apparatus H, which turns on a universal joint at K, and also moves to or from F in a chased mortise. This apparatus, which carries the iron plate I for holding the substances to be examined, may thus be placed exactly in the focus of the lens B. The conical framing is supported by pivots upon a strong iron bow AC, which rests upon a malogany frame LL, with three feet MMM furnished with castors. Friction wheels are placed under the table N, to facilitate the horizontal motion.

The following experiments with this lens were made in the presence of Major Gardner, and of several members of the Royal Society.

Substances fused, with their weight and time of fusion.	Weight in grains.	Time in seconds.
Common slate.....	10.....	2
Scoria of wrought iron.....	12.....	2
Gold, pure.....	30.....	3
Platina, do.....	10.....	3
Nickel.....	16.....	3
Cast iron, a cube.....	10.....	3
Silver, pure.....	20.....	4
Crystal pebble.....	7.....	6
Terra ponderosa, or barytes.....	10.....	7
Lava.....	10.....	7
Asbestos.....	10.....	10
Steel, a cube.....	10.....	12
Bar iron, do.....	10.....	12
Garnet.....	10.....	17
Copper, pure.....	33.....	20
Onyx.....	10.....	20
Zeolites.....	10.....	23
Pumice stone.....	10.....	24
An oriental emerald.....	2.....	25
Jasper.....	10.....	25
White agate.....	10.....	30
Flint, oriental.....	10.....	30
A topaz or chrysolite.....	3.....	45
Common limestone.....	10.....	55
Volcanic clay.....	10.....	60
Cornish moor-stone.....	10.....	60
White rhomboidal spar.....	10.....	60
Rough cornelian.....	10.....	75
Rotten stone.....	10.....	80

A diamond of ten grains, when exposed to the lens for thirty minutes, was reduced to six grains. It opened, fo- liated, and emitted whitish fumes, and when again closed it bore a polish and kept its form.

Gold retained its metallic state though exposed for many hours.

The specimens of platina were in different states of ap- proach to a metallic form.

Copper did not lose any of its weight after an exposure of three minutes.

Iron steel shear melted first at the part in contact with the charcoal, while the other part exposed to the focus was unfused.

Iron scoria melted in much less time than the turnings of iron.

Calk of iron from vitriolic acid, precipitated by mild fixed alkali, weighed five grains before exposure, and five and a quarter after it.

The remains of regulus of zinc, after it had melted and was nearly evaporated, were magnetic.

Regulus of cobalt was completely evaporated in 57'.

Regulus of bismuth exposed in charcoal was nearly eva- porated. In black lead it began to melt in 2', and was soon after completely fused. Iron, on exposure of 180', lost only half a grain; when placed on bone ash it fused in 3'.

Regulus of antimony, thirty-three grains, on charcoal, were fused in 3', and eleven grains only remained after 195'.

Fine kearsch from the cannon foundry evaporated very fast during 120', and 30' afterwards the remainder flowed in globules, which were attracted by the magnet when cold.

Crystal pebble of North America, five grains, contract- ed in 15', were perfectly glazed in 135', ebulliscent in 150', and became of a slate colour and semitransparent.

Agate, oriental flint, cornelian, and jasper, were ren- dered externally of a glossy form.

Garnet, placed upon black lead, fused in 120'. It be- came of a darker hue, lost one fourth of a grain, and was attracted by the magnet. Ten cut garnets from a bracelet ran into one another in a few seconds.

Mr Wedgewood's pyrometrical clay ran into a white enamel in a few seconds. Other seven kinds of clay sent by that gentleman were vitrified.

Limestone was sometimes vitrified and sometimes agglu- timated. A globule from one of the specimens flew into a thousand pieces when put into the mouth.

Stalactites zeolithus spatosus, nine grains, took a globu- lar form in 60'. The globule began to become clear in 145'. It became perfectly transparent in 155'. When cold, its transparency diminished, and it assumed a beau- tiful red colour.

Lavas and other volcanic products likewise yielded to the power of this lens.

In the year 1802 Sir Joseph Banks, Dr Crawford, and some other members of the Royal Society, were present at an experiment for concentrating the lunar rays; but though the most sensible thermometers were applied, it was rather thought that there was a diminution than an increase of heat.

It was not to be expected that this powerful lens, which cost so large a sum of money, could have been retained in the hands of Mr Parker. That ingenious artist was na- turally desirous to indemnify himself for the expense of its construction. A subscription was therefore opened for purchasing the lens as a national instrument; but this sub- scription failing, Mr Parker was induced to sell it to Cap- tain Mackintosh, who accompanied Lord Macartney to China. This valuable instrument was left at Peking, where it still remains.

This glass of Parker's is perhaps the largest solid lens that can be made in practice, without very great difficul- ties and expense in procuring so large a quantity of mat- erial of sufficient purity, and casting it in the lenticular form free of faults; and supposing these overcome, we have still the great thickness in the centre, and the enormous absorption of light in consequence of it, while the exterior portion of the glass by the spherical aberration disperses the rays from the focal point. With the compound lenses of Buffon, again, there is no limit to the magnitude further than what arises from the reflection of light near the cir- cumference of the glass when the rays fall there very obliquely. If the diameter of the lens were to be equal to the chord of 48° of the sphere to which the lens has been formed, the whole of the incident light near the cir- cumference would be reflected.

To augment still further the power of burning instru- ments, Dr Brewster proposes a compound instrument, sphere of which he terms a burning sphere, consisting of lenses and reflectors combined together,—a series of lenses be- **Burning Glasses.**

Burnisher
Burns.

ing arranged in a circle having their foci all in the centre, and having each a plane reflector so situated as to throw the sun's rays in the direction of the axis of the lens. The following is his description of it as represented in fig. 8, which is merely a section of the sphere, and represents only five of the lenses and four of the mirrors. The lenses A, B, C, D, E, which may be of any diameter and focal length, are so placed in the spherical surface AMN, that their principal foci exactly coincide in the point F. If any of the lenses have a different focal length from the rest, the coincidence of its focus with that of the other may be easily effected by varying its distance from F. The whole spherical surface, whose section is AMN, except a small opening for admitting the object to be fused, may be covered with lenses, having all their foci coincident at F; though it will, perhaps, be more convenient to have the posterior part MN without lenses, and occupied by a mirror of nearly the same radius FA as the sphere. The object of this mirror is to throw back upon the object at F the light that passes by it, without producing any effect. Each of the lenses, except the lens A, is furnished with a plane glass mirror, which may be either fixed to the general frame of the sphere, or placed upon a separate stand. When this combination is completed the sphere is exposed to the sun, so that its rays may fall at right angles upon the lens A, which will of course concentrate them at F, and produce a pretty intense heat. The plane mirror PQ, when properly adjusted, will reflect the sun's light perpendicularly upon the lens B, by which it will be refracted accurately to the focus F, and produce a degree of heat fully one half of what was produced by the direct refracted rays of the sun through the lens A. A similar effect will be produced by the mirror RS and lens D, the mirror TU and lens C, the mirror VW and lens E, and by all the other mirrors and lenses which are not seen in the section. The effect may be still further increased by the addition of a large lens at XX. As the angle which the surface of each mirror forms with the axis of its corresponding lens is a constant quantity, the mirrors may be all fixed to the general frame of the sphere, and therefore the only adjustment which the instrument will require is to keep the axis of the lens A parallel to the direction of the solar rays.

In order to estimate the advantages of this construction, let us compare its effects with those of a solid lens, which exposes the same area of glass to the incident rays.

BURNISHER, a round polished piece of steel, serving to smooth and give a lustre to metals. Of these there are different kinds, of different figures, straight, crooked, and the like. Half burnishers are used to solder silver, as well as to give it a lustre. Burnishers for gold and silver are commonly made of a dog's or wolf's tooth, set in the end of an iron or wooden handle. Of late agates and pebbles have been introduced, which many prefer to the dog's tooth. The burnishers used by engravers in copper, usually serve with one end to burnish, and with the other to scrape.

BURNISHING, the art of smoothing or polishing a metalline body, by a brisk rubbing of it with a burnisher. **BURNLEY**, a market-town of the parish of Whalley, and hundred of Blackburn, in the county of Lancaster, 210 miles from London. The district abounds with coal, the raising of which, as well as stones and slate, is the chief labour in which the inhabitants find occupation. The market is held on Saturday. The population amounted in 1801 to 3305, in 1811 to 4368, and in 1821 to 6378.

BURNS, ROBERT, the national bard of Scotland, was

Burns.

1. In the burning sphere, almost the only diminution of light is that which arises from reflection by the plane mirrors, and which may be estimated pretty accurately at one half of the incident light; but this loss can be amply compensated by adding a few more lenses.

2. In the solid lens a great diminution of light arises from the thickness of the central portions, and from the obliquity of the parts at the circumference, which, we conceive, will be fully equal to the light lost by reflection in the burning sphere.

3. In the burning sphere the lenses may be obtained of much purer glass than can be got for a solid lens; and therefore, *ceteris paribus*, they will transmit more light.

4. Owing to the small size of each lens in the burning sphere, the diminution of effect arising both from spherical aberration and from the aberration of colour will be very much less than in the solid lens.

5. In the burning sphere the effect is greatly increased, in consequence of the shortness of the focal length of each lens, and the greater concentration of the incident light.

6. In the burning sphere all kinds of lenses may be combined. They may be made of any kind of glass, of any diameter, and of any focal length; and the lenses belonging to different individuals may be combined for any occasional experiment in which a great intensity of heat is requisite.

For further information on the subject of burning instruments, see Buffon, *Supplément à l'Histoire Naturelle*, tome première, 4to; *Sizicme Mémoire*, p. 399; Kircher, *Ars Magna Lucis et Umbra*, p. 772; Wolfii, *Opera Mathematica*, tom. ii. p. 165; Traberus, *In Neruo Optica*, lib. ii.; *Phil. Trans.* No. 6, p. 95; *Ibid.* No. 33, p. 631; *Ibid.* No. 40, p. 795; *Ibid.* 1719, vol. xxx.; No. 360, p. 976; *Ibid.* 1687, vol. xvi.; Tschirnhausen, vol. xix. 1768; Vilette, *Journal des Savans*, 1666; La Garouste, *Mém. Acad. Par.* 1679, tom. i.; Nollet, *Mém. Acad. Par.* 1757; Courvoisier, *Mém. Acad. Par.* 1747; Trudaine, *Mém. Acad. Par.* 1774; Cadet and Brisson, *Mém. Acad. Par.* 1777; *Act. Eruditi.* 1687; Richman, *Nov. Com. Petrop.* tom. iii.; Zeiber, *Nov. Com. Petrop.* tom. vii. 1758, 1759; *Journal Encyclopédique*, 1777; Dupuy, *Mém. Acad. Inscr.* 1777; *Œuvres d'Archimède*, par T. Peyrard, tom. ii.; Bossuet, *Histoire des Mathématiques*; Dutcn, *Du Miroir Ardent d'Archimède*, Paris, 1755; *A description of the great Burning Glass made by M. Vilette and his two Sons, with some Remarks on the surprising and wonderful effects thereof*, London, 1719, &c. (c.)

born on the 25th of January 1759, in a clay-built cottage about two miles south of the town of Ayr. He was the eldest son of William Burnes, or Burness, who at the period of Robert's birth was gardener and overseer to a gentleman of small estate; but resided on a few acres of land which he had on lease from another person. The father was a man of strict religious principles, and also distinguished for that penetration and knowledge of mankind which was afterwards so conspicuous in his son. The mother of the poet was likewise a very sagacious woman, and possessed an inexhaustible store of ballads and legendary tales, with which she nourished the infant imagination of him whose own productions were destined to excel them all.

These worthy individuals laboured diligently for the support of an increasing family; nor, in the midst of harassing struggles, did they neglect the mental improvement of their offspring; a characteristic of Scottish parents, even under the most depressing circumstances. In his sixth year Robert was put under the tuition of one Campbell, and subsequently under Mr John Murdoch, a

Burns. very faithful and pains-taking teacher. With this individual he remained for a few years, and was accurately instructed in the first principles of composition. The poet and his brother Gilbert were the aptest pupils in the school, and were generally at the head of the class. Mr Murdoch, in afterwards recording the impressions which the two brothers made on him, says, "Gilbert always appeared to me to possess a more lively imagination, and to be more of the wit, than Robert. I attempted to teach them a little church-music. Here they were left far behind by all the rest of the school. Robert's ear in particular was remarkably dull, and his voice untunable. It was long before I could get them to distinguish one tune from another. Robert's countenance was generally grave, and expressive of a serious, contemplative, and thoughtful mind." Gilbert's face said, *Mirth, with thee I mean to live*; and certainly, if any person who knew the two boys had been asked which of them was the most likely to court the muses, he would never have guessed that Robert had a propensity of that kind.

Besides the tuition of Mr Murdoch, Burns received instructions from his father in writing and arithmetic. Under their joint care he made rapid progress, and was remarkable for the ease with which he committed devotional poetry to memory. The following extract from his letter to Dr Moore in 1787 is interesting, from the light which it throws upon his progress as a scholar, and on the formation of his character as a poet:—"At those years," says he, "I was by no means a favourite with any body. I was a good deal noted for a retentive memory, a stubborn sturdy something in my disposition, and an enthusiastic idiot piety. I say idiot piety, because I was then but a child. Though it cost the schoolmaster some thrashings, I made an excellent scholar; and by the time I was ten or eleven years of age, I was a critic in substantives, verbs, and particles. In my infant and boyish days, too, I owed much to an old woman who resided in the family, remarkable for her ignorance, credulity, and superstition. She had, I suppose, the largest collection in the country, of tales and songs concerning devils, ghosts, fairies, brownies, witches, warlocks, spunkies, kelpies, elf-candles, dead-lights, wraiths, apparitions, cantrips, giants, enchanted towers, dragons, and other trumpery. This cultivated the latent seeds of poetry; but had so strong an effect on my imagination, that to this hour, in my nocturnal rambles, I sometimes keep a sharp look-out in suspicious places; and though nobody can be more sceptical than I am in such matters, yet it often takes an effort of philosophy to shake off these idle terrors. The earliest composition that I recollect taking pleasure in was *The Vision of Mirza*, and a hymn of Addison's, beginning, *How are thy servants blest, O Lord!* I particularly remember one half-stanza, which was music to my boyish ear—

For though on dreadful whirls we hung
High on the broken wave—

I met with these pieces in *Mason's English Collection*, one of my school-books. The first two books I ever read in private, and which gave me more pleasure than any two books I ever read since, were, *The Life of Hannibal*, and *The History of Sir William Wallace*. Hannibal gave my young ideas such a turn, that I used to strut in raptures up and down after the recruiting drum and bagpipe, and wish myself tall enough to be a soldier; while the story of Wallace poured a tide of Scottish prejudice into my veins, which will boil along there till the flood-gates of life shut in eternal rest."

Mr Murdoch's removal from Mount Oliphant deprived Burns of his instructions; but they were still continued by the father of the bard. About the age of fourteen he

was sent to school every alternate week for the improvement of his writing. In the meanwhile he was busily employed upon the operations of the farm; and, at the age of fifteen, was considered as the principal labourer upon it. About a year after this he gained three weeks of respite, which he spent with his old tutor Murdoch at Ayr, in revising the English grammar, and in studying the French language, in which he made uncommon progress. Ere his sixteenth year elapsed, he had considerably extended his reading. The vicinity of Mount Oliphant to Ayr afforded him facilities for gratifying what had now become a passion. Among the books which he had perused were some plays of Shakespeare, Pope, the works of Allan Ramsay, and a collection of songs which constituted his *codicilium*. "I pored over them," says he, "driving my cart or walking to labour, song by song, verse by verse, carefully noticing the true tender or sublime from affectation and fustian." So early did he evince his attachment to the lyric muse, in which he was destined to surpass all who have gone before or succeeded him.

At this period the family removed to Lochlea, in the parish of Tarbolton. Some time before, however, he had made his first attempt in poetry. It was a song addressed to a rural beauty about his own age; and though possessing no great merit as a whole, it contains some lines and ideas which would have done honour to him at any age. After the removal to Lochlea his literary zeal slackened; for he was thus cut off from those acquaintances whose conversation stimulated his powers, and whose kindness supplied him with books. For about three years after this period he was busily employed upon the farm; but at intervals he paid his addresses to the poetic muse, and with no common success. The summer of his nineteenth year was spent in the study of mensuration, surveying, &c. at a small sea-port town, a good distance from home. He returned to his father's considerably improved. "My reading," says he, "was enlarged with the very important addition of Thomson's and Shenstone's works. I had seen human nature in a new phase; and I engaged several of my school-fellows to keep up a literary correspondence with me. This improved me in composition. I had met with a collection of letters by the wits of Queen Anne's reign, and I pored over them most devoutly; I kept copies of any of my own letters that pleased me; and a comparison between them and the composition of most of my correspondents flattered my vanity. I carried this whim so far, that though I had not three farthings worth of business in the world, yet almost every effort brought me as many letters as if I had been a broad plodding son of day-book and ledger."

His mind, peculiarly susceptible of tender impressions, was continually the slave of some rustic charmer. In the "heat and whirlwind of his love," he generally found relief in poetry, by which, as by a safety valve, his turbulent passions were allowed to have vent. He formed the resolution of entering the matrimonial state; but his circumscribed means of subsistence as a farmer preventing his taking that step, he resolved on becoming a flax-dresser, for which purpose he removed to the town of Irvine in 1781. The speculation turned out unsuccessful; for the shop catching fire, was burnt, and the poet returned to his father without a sixpence. During his stay at Irvine he had met with Ferguson's poems. This circumstance was of some importance to Burns, for it roused his poetic powers from the torpor into which they had fallen, and in a great measure finally determined the Scottish character of his poetry. He here also contracted some friendships, which he himself says did him mischief; and, by his brother Gilbert's account, from this date there was a serious change in his conduct. The venerable and ex-

Burns. colient parent of the poet died soon after his son's return. The support of the family now devolving upon Burns, in conjunction with his brother he took a sub-lease of the farm of Mossiel, in the parish of Mauchline. The four years which he resided upon this farm were the most important of his life. It was here he felt that nature had designed him for a poet; and here, accordingly, his genius began to develop its energies in those strains which will make his name familiar to all future times, the admiration of every civilized country, and the glory and boast of his own.

The vigour of Burns's understanding, and the keenness of his wit, as displayed more particularly at masonic meetings and debating clubs, of which he formed one at Mauchline, began to spread his fame as a man of uncommon endowments. He now could number as his acquaintance several clergymen, and also some gentlemen of substance; amongst whom was Mr Gavin Hamilton, writer in Mauchline, one of his earliest patrons. One circumstance more than any other contributed to increase his notoriety. "Political divinity," says he to Dr Moore in 1787, "about this time was putting the country half mad; and I, ambitious of shining in conversation-parties on Sundays, at funerals, &c. used to puzzle Calvinism with so much heat and indiscretion, that I raised a hue-and-cry of heresy against me, which has not ceased to this hour." The farm which he possessed belonged to the Earl of Loudon, but the brothers held it in sub-lease from Mr Hamilton. This gentleman was at open feud with one of the ministers of Mauchline, who was a rigid Calvinist. Mr Hamilton maintained opposite tenets; and it is not matter of surprise that the young farmer should have espoused his cause, and brought all the resources of his genius to bear upon it. The result was *The Holy Fair, The Ordination, Holy Willie's Prayer*, and other satires, as much distinguished for their coarse severity and bitterness, as for their genius.

The applause which greeted these pieces emboldened the poet, and encouraged him to proceed. In his life by his brother Gilbert, a very interesting account is given of the occasions which gave rise to the poems, and the chronological order in which they were produced. The exquisite pathos and humour, the strong manly sense, the masterly command of felicitous language, the graphic power of delineating scenery, manners, and incidents, which appear so conspicuously in his various poems, could not fail to call forth the admiration of those who were favoured with a perusal of them. But the clouds of misfortune were gathering darkly above the head of him who was thus giving delight to a large and widening circle of friends. The farm of Mossiel proved a losing concern; and an amour with Miss Jane Armour, afterwards Mrs Burns, had assumed so serious an aspect, that he at first resolved to fly from the scene of his disgrace and misery. One trait of his character, however, must be mentioned. Before taking any steps for his departure, he met Miss Armour by appointment, and gave into her hands a written acknowledgment of marriage, which, when produced by a person in her situation, is, according to the Scots law, to be accepted as legal evidence of an irregular marriage having really taken place. This the lady burned at the persuasion of her father, who was adverse to a marriage; and Burns, thus wounded in the two most powerful feelings of his mind, his love and pride, was driven almost to insanity. Jamaica was his destination; but as he did not possess the money necessary to defray the expense of his passage out, he resolved to publish some of his best poems, in order to raise the requisite sum. These views were warmly promoted by some of his more opulent friends; and a sufficiency of subscribers having been procured, one

of the finest volumes of poetry that ever appeared in the world issued from the provincial press of Kilmarnock.

It is hardly possible to imagine with what eager admiration and delight they were everywhere received. They possessed in an eminent degree all those qualities which invariably contribute to render any literary work quickly and permanently popular. They were written in a phraseology of which all the powers were universally felt, and which being at once antique, familiar, and now rarely written, was therefore fitted to serve all the dignified and picturesque uses of poetry, without making it unintelligible. The imagery and the sentiments were at once natural, impressive, and interesting. Those topics of satire and scandal in which the rustic delights; that humorous imitation of character, and that witty association of ideas familiar and striking, yet not naturally allied to one another, which has force to shake his sides with laughter; those fancies of superstition, at which one still wonders and trembles; those affecting sentiments and images of true religion, which are at once dear and awful to the heart; were all represented by Burns with the magical power of true poetry. Old and young, high and low, grave and gay, learned and ignorant, all were alike surprised and transported.

In the mean time, a few copies of these fascinating poems found their way to Edinburgh, and having been read to Dr Blacklock, obtained his warmest approbation; and he advised the author to repair to Edinburgh. Burns lost no time in complying with this request; and accordingly, towards the end of the year 1786, he set out for the capital, where he was received by Dr Blacklock with the most flattering kindness, and introduced to every person of taste among that excellent man's friends. Multitudes now vied with each other in patronising the rustic poet. Those who possessed at once true taste and ardent philanthropy were soon united in his praise; those who were disposed to favour any good thing belonging to Scotland, purely because it was Scottish, gladly joined the cry; while those who had hearts and understandings to be charmed without knowing why, when they saw their native customs, manners, and language, made the subjects and the materials of poetry, could not suppress that impulse of feeling which struggled to declare itself in favour of Burns.

Thus did Burns, ere he had been many weeks in Edinburgh, find himself the object of universal curiosity, favour, admiration, and fondness. He was sought after, courted with attentions the most respectful and assiduous, flattered, caressed, and treated by all ranks as the great boast of his country, whom it was scarcely possible to honour and reward in a degree equal to his merits.

A new edition of his poems was called for; and the public mind was directed to the subject by Henry Mackenzie, who dedicated a paper in the *Edinburgh Review* to a commendatory notice of the poet. This circumstance will ever be remembered to the honour of that polished writer, not only for the warmth of the eulogy he bestowed, but because it was the first printed acknowledgment which had been made to the genius of Burns. The copyright was sold to Creech for £100; but the friends of the poet advised him to forward a subscription. The patronage of the Caledonian Hunt, a very influential body, was obtained. The list of subscribers rapidly rose to 1500; many gentlemen paying a great deal more than the price of the volume; and it was supposed that the poet derived from the subscription and the sale of his copy-right a clear profit of at least £700.

The conversation of Burns, according to the testimony of all the eminent men who heard him, was even more wonderful than his poetry. He affected no soft air nor graceful motions of politeness, which might have ill accorded

Burns, with the rustic plainness of his native manners. Conscious superiority of mind taught him to associate with the great, the learned, and the gay, without being overawed into any such bashfulness as might have rendered him confused in thought or hesitating in elocution. He possessed withal an extraordinary share of plain common sense or mother-wit, which prevented him from obtruding upon persons, of whatever rank, with whom he was admitted to converse, any of those effusions of vanity, envy, or self-conceit, in which authors who have lived remote from the general practice of life, and whose minds have been almost exclusively confined to contemplate their own studies and their own works, are but too prone to indulge. In conversation he displayed a sort of intuitive quickness and rectitude of judgment upon every subject that arose. The sensibility of his heart, and the vivacity of his fancy, gave a rich colouring to whatever opinions he was disposed to advance; and his language was thus not less happy in conversation than in his writings. Hence those who had met and conversed with him once, were pleased to meet and to converse with him again and again.

For some time he associated only with the virtuous, the learned, and the wise, and the purity of his morals remained uncontaminated. But unfortunately he fell, as others have fallen in similar circumstances. He suffered himself to be surrounded by persons who were proud to tell that they had been in company with Burns, and had seen Burns as loose and as foolish as themselves. He now also began to contract something of arrogance in conversation. Accustomed to be among his associates what is vulgarly but expressively called "the cock of the company," he could scarcely refrain from indulging in a similar freedom and dictatorial decision of talk, even in the presence of persons who could less patiently endure presumption.

After remaining some months in the Scottish metropolis, basking in the noontide sun of a popularity which, as Douglass Stewart well remarks, would have turned any head but his own, he formed a resolution of returning to the shades whence he had emerged, but not before he had perambulated the southern border. On the 6th of May 1787 he set out on his journey, and, visiting all that appeared interesting on the north of the Tweed, proceeded to Newcastle and other places on the English side. He returned in about two months to his family at Mauchline; but in a short period he again set out on an excursion to the north, where he was most flatteringly received by all the great families. On his return to Moesiel he completed his marriage with Miss Armour. He then concluded a bargain with Mr Miller of Dalwinton, for a lease of the farm of Elliesland, on advantageous terms.

Burns entered on possession of this farm at Whitsunday 1788. He had formerly applied with success for an excise commission, and during six weeks of the summer of this year he had to attend to the business of that profession at Ayr. His life for some time was thus wandering and unsettled; and Dr Currie mentions this as one of his chief misfortunes. Mrs Burns came home to him towards the end of the year, and the poet was accustomed to say that the happiest period of his life was the first winter he spent in Elliesland. The neighbouring farmers and gentlemen, pleased to obtain for a neighbour the poet by whose works they had been delighted, kindly sought his company, and invited him to their houses. Burns, however, found an inexpressible charm in sitting down beside his wife, at his own fireside; in wandering over his own grounds; in once more putting his hand to the spade and the plough; in forming his inclosures, and managing his cattle. For some months he felt almost all that felicity which fancy had taught him to expect in his new situation. He had been for a time idle; but his muscles were

not yet unbraced for rural toil. He now seemed to find a joy in being the husband of the mistress of his affections, and in seeing himself the father of children such as promised to attach him for ever to that modest, humble, and domestic life, in which alone he could hope to be permanently happy. Even his engagements in the service of the excise did not, at first, threaten either to contaminate the poet or to ruin the farmer.

From various causes, the farming speculation did not succeed. Indeed, from the time he obtained a situation under government, he gradually began to sink the farmer in the exciseman. Occasionally he assisted in the rustic occupations of Elliesland, but for the most part he was engaged in very different pursuits. In his professional perambulations over the moors of Dumfriesshire he had to encounter temptations which a mild and temperance like his found it difficult to resist. His immortal works had made him universally known and enthusiastically admired; and accordingly he was a welcome guest at every house, from the most princely mansion to the lowest country inn. In the latter he was too frequently to be found as the presiding genius, and master of the orgies. However, he still continued at intervals to cultivate the muse; and, besides a variety of other pieces, he produced at this period the inimitable poem of Tam o'Shanter. Johnson's Miscellany was also indebted to him for the finest of its lyrics. One pleasing trait of his character must not be overlooked. He superintended the formation of a subscription library in the parish, and took the whole management of it upon himself. These institutions, though common now, were not so at the period of which we write; and it should never be forgotten that Burns was amongst the first, if not the very first, of their founders in the rural districts of southern Scotland.

Towards the close of 1791 he finally abandoned his farm; and obtaining an appointment to the Dumfries division of excise, he repaired to that town on a salary of £70 per annum. All his principal biographers concur in stating that after settling in Dumfries his moral career was downwards. Heron, who had some acquaintance with the matter, says, "His dissipation became still more deeply habitual; he was here more exposed than in the country to be solicited to share the revels of the dissolute and the idle; foolish young men flocked eagerly about him, and from time to time pressed him to drink with them, that they might enjoy his wit. The Caledonian Club, too, and the Dumfriesshire and Galloway Hunt, had occasional meetings in Dumfries after Burns went to reside there; and the poet was of course invited to share their conviviality, and hesitated not to accept the invitation. In the intervals between his different fits of intemperance he suffered the keenest anguish of remorse, and horribly afflictive foresight. His Jane behaved with a degree of conjugal and maternal tenderness and prudence, which made him feel more bitterly the evil of his misconduct, although they could not reclaim him."

This is a dark picture, perhaps too dark. The Rev. Mr Gray, who, as the teacher of his son, was intimately acquainted with Burns, and had frequent opportunities of judging of his general character and deportment, gives a more amiable portrait of the bard. Being an eye-witness, the testimony of this gentleman must be allowed to have some weight. "The truth is," says he, "Burns was seldom intoxicated. The drunkard soon becomes besotted, and is shunned even by the convivial. Had he been so, he could not have long continued the idol of every party." This is strong reasoning; and he goes on to mention other circumstances which seem to confirm the truth of his position. In balancing these two statements, a juster estimate of the moral deportment of Burns may be formed.

Burns.

In the year 1792 party politics ran to a great height in Scotland, and the liberal and independent spirit of Burns did certainly betray him into some indiscretions. A general opinion prevails, that he so far lost the good graces of his superiors by his conduct, as to consider all prospects of future promotion as hopeless. But this appears not to have been the case; and the fact that he acted as supervisor before his death is a strong proof to the contrary. Of his political verses few have as yet been published. But in these warmly espoused the cause of the Whigs, which kept up the spleen of the other party, already sufficiently provoked; and this may in some measure account for the bitterness with which his own character was attacked.

Whatever opinion may be formed of the extent of his dissipation in Dumfries, one fact is unquestionable, that his powers remained unimpaired to the last; it was there he produced his finest lyrics, and they are the finest, as well as the purest, that ever delighted mankind. Besides Johnson's *Museum*, in which he took an interest to the last, and contributed most extensively, he formed a connection with Mr George Thomson of Edinburgh. This gentleman had conceived the laudable design of collecting the national melodies of Scotland, with accompaniments by the most eminent composers, and poetry by the most eminent writers, in addition to those words which were originally attached to them. From the multitude of songs which Burns wrote from the year 1792 till the commencement of his illness, it is evident that few days could have passed without his producing some stanzas for the work. The following passage from his correspondence, which was also most extensive, proves that his songs were not hurriedly got up, but composed with the utmost care and attention. "Until I am complete master of a tune in my own singing, such as it is," says he, "I can never compose for it. My way is this. I consider the poetic sentiment correspondent to my idea of the musical expression,—then choose my theme,—compose one stanza. When that is composed, which is generally the most difficult part of the business, I walk out,—sit down now and then,—look out for objects in nature round me that are in unison or harmony with the cogitations of my fancy, and workings of my bosom,—humming every now and then the air, with the verses I have framed. When I feel my muse beginning to jade, I retire to the solitary fireside of my study, and there commit my effusions to paper; swinging at intervals on the hind legs of my elbow-chair, by way of calling forth my own critical strictures, as my pen goes. Seriously, this, at home, is almost invariably my way." This is not only interesting for the light which it throws upon his method of composition, but it proves that conviviality had not as yet greater charms for him than the muse.

From his youth Burns had exhibited ominous symptoms of a radical disorder in his constitution. A palpitation of the heart, and a derangement of the digestive organs, were conspicuous. These were, doubtless, increased by his indulgences, which became more frequent as he drew towards the close of his career. In the autumn of 1795 he lost an only daughter, which was a severe blow to him. Soon afterwards he was seized with a rheumatic fever; and "long the die spun doubtful," says he, in a letter to his faithful friend Mrs Dunlop, "until, after many weeks of a sick bed, it seems to have turned up life, and I am beginning to crawl across my room." The cloud behind which his sun was destined to be eclipsed at noon had begun to darken above him. Before he had completely recovered, he had the imprudence to join a festive circle; and, on his return from it, he caught a cold, which brought back his trouble upon him with redoubled severity. Sea-bathing was had recourse to, but with no ultimate success.

Burns-
Island.

He lingered until the 21st of July 1796, when he expired. The interest which the death of Burns excited was intense. All differences were forgotten; his genius only was thought of. On the 30th of the same month he was conveyed to the grave, followed by about ten thousand individuals of all ranks, many of whom had come from distant parts of the country to witness the solemnity. He was interred with military honours by the Dumfries volunteers, to which body he had belonged.

Thus, at the age of thirty-seven, an age when the mental powers of man have scarcely reached their climax, died Robert Burns, one of the greatest poets whom his country has produced. It is unnecessary to enter into any lengthened analysis of his poetry or character. His works are universally known and admired, and criticism has been drawn to the dregs upon the subject; and that, too, by the greatest masters who have appeared since his death,—no mean test of the great merits of his writings. He excels equally in touching the heart by the exquisite-ness of his pathos, and exciting the risible faculties by the breadth of his humour. His lyre had many strings, and he had equal command over them all; striking each, and frequently in chords, with the skill and power of a master. That his satire sometimes degenerates into coarse invective, cannot be denied; but where personality is not permitted to interfere, his poems of this description may take their place beside any thing of the kind which has ever been produced, without being disgraced by the comparison. It is unnecessary to re-echo the praises of his best pieces, as there is no epithet of admiration which has not been bestowed upon them. Those who had best opportunities of judging, are of opinion that his works, stamped as they are with the impress of sovereign genius, fall short of the powers he possessed. It is therefore to be lamented that he undertook no great work of fiction or invention. Had circumstances permitted, he would probably have done so; but his exsicc duties, and without doubt his own follies, prevented him. His passions were strong, and his capacity of enjoyment corresponded with them. These continually precipitated him into the vortex of pleasure, where alone they could be gratified; and the re-action consequent upon such indulgences (for he possessed the finest discrimination between right and wrong) threw him into low spirits, to which he was also constitutionally liable. His mind, being thus never for any length of time in an equable tone, could scarcely pursue with steady regularity a work of any length. His moral aberrations, as detailed by some of his biographers, have been exaggerated, as already noticed. This has been proved by the testimony of many witnesses, from whose authority there can be no appeal; for they had the best opportunities of judging. In fine, it may be doubted whether he has not, by his writings, exercised a greater power over the minds of men, and the general system of life, than has been exercised by any other modern poet. A complete edition of his works, in four vols. 8vo, with a life, was published by Dr Currie of Liverpool. Editions have been since multiplied beyond number; and several excellent accounts of his life have been published, particularly that by Mr Lockhart.

BURNISLAND, or BRUNTISLAND, a royal burgh and parish of Scotland, in the county of Fife, situated upon the Frith of Forth. It is slightly peninsular, but it does not appear to have been ever surrounded by the sea. It is well sheltered towards the north by steep hills; and accordingly the harbour, which lies on its western quarter, is reckoned one of the safest in the frith. There is also a small light-house erected on the right of the entrance. The town is tolerably clean and well built, possessing one main street of considerable length, with a back one of lesser dimensions, and various diverging thoroughfares.

BUR-
MOOTEE
BURA.

There is a large distillery here, and ship-building is carried on to some extent. In ancient times it was fortified, and the remains of a wall and fort are still extant. There is a regular ferry between Burntisland and Leith, from which it is distant six miles north-west. The population amounted in 1821 to 2136, and in 1831 to 2366.

BURAMOOTEE, a large town of Hindustan, in the province of Bejapoor, forty-four miles south-east from Poonah, and one mile from Merud. It has a strong fortification, divided by the Kurrah river.

BURROW, SIR JAMES, master of the crown office, was elected a fellow of the Royal Society and of the Society of Arts in 1751. On the death of Mr West in 1772, he was prevailed on to fill the president's chair at the Royal Society till the anniversary election, when he resigned it to Sir John Pringle; and on the 10th of August 1773, when the society presented an address to his majesty, he received the honour of knighthood. He published two volumes of reports in 1766; two others in 1771 and 1776; and a volume of decisions of the court of king's bench upon settlement cases from 1732 to 1772, to which was subjoined an Essay of Punctuation, in three parts, 4to, 1768, 1772, 1776. The Essay was also printed separately in 4to, 1773. He published, without his name, A few Anecdotes and Observations relating to Oliver Cromwell and his family, serving to rectify several errors concerning him, published by Nicol. Comm. Papadopolis, in his *Historia Gymnasii Patavini*, 1763, 4to. He died in 1782.

BURSA, a large walled city of Asiatic Turkey, in the province of Natolia, about six miles in circuit, including the suburbs. It is situated on eminences on each side of a height, and is surmounted by a castle, which is about a mile in circumference, and which antiquaries conjecture to be the ancient Prusa. The city is said to contain 300 mosques and churches, the tombs of several sultans, together with chapels of marble and jasper. The population consists of Turks, Greeks, Armenians, and Jews. The two latter, however, do not amount to more than 600 and 800 families. The Greeks dwell in a suburb west of the castle, and divided from it by a deep channel, planted with mulberry trees, and crossed by several bridges, one of them ninety paces long and sixteen broad, and occupied on each side by shops. The Greeks have three churches in this suburb, and their metropolitan. The Armenians inhabit a suburb to the east of the former, where they have a church and an archbishop. The town is resorted to for its mineral springs, which are reckoned salutary in various disorders. At the west end of the town a spring of cold and another of hot water rise in the same apartment; and in another bath called the New Spring, which is the largest and most beautiful of the whole, two hot streams issue from a copious fountain, and run through the middle of the room. There are various manufactures in the town, and an extensive trade. Satins in great variety, and chiefly striped, are made here, for the short under garments of the Turkish habit; and there are besides manufactures of silk stuffs and gauze, while quantities of raw silk are exported by the caravans to Aleppo, Smyrna, and Constantinople. Bursa is a very ancient city, and is generally supposed to have been built by Prusias, king of Bithynia, about five or six centuries before the Christian era. After experiencing many revolutions, it was captured by an Arab prince in the year 957, but was soon retaken and held by the Greeks. In 1356 it was conquered by the Turks under Othman II., and remained the capital of the Turkish empire until the conquest of Constantinople in 1452 by Mahommed II., when the seat of government was transferred to that city. The population is computed at 60,000. It is 75 miles south-south-west of Constantinople. Long. 29. 12. E. Lat. 40. 11. N.

VOL. V.

BURSAR, or BURSER (*Bursarius*), is used, in the middle-age writers, for a treasurer or cash-keeper. In this sense we meet with bursars of colleges. Conventual bursars were officers in monasteries, who were bound to deliver an account yearly on the day after Michaelmas. The word is formed from the Latin *bursa*, whence the English word *purse*; and hence also the officer, who in a college is called *bursar*, in a ship is called *pursar*.

BURSARS, or *Bursarii* (*Bursarii*), also denote those to whom stipends are paid out of a bursar or fund appointed for that purpose.

BURSARIA, the bursary, or exchequer of collegiate and conventual bodies; or the place of receiving, paying, and accounting, by the bursarii or bursars.

BURSE, in matters of commerce, denotes a public edifice in certain cities, for the meeting of merchants to negotiate bills, and confer on other matters relating to money and trade. In this sense bursar amounts to the same with what we otherwise call an exchange. The first place of this kind to which the name *Burse* was given was at Bruges. From this city the name was afterwards transferred to the like places in others, as in Antwerp, Amsterdam, Bergen in Norway, and London. This last, anciently known by the name of the common *bourse* of merchants, had the denomination of the *royal exchange* given it by Queen Elizabeth. In the times of the Romans there were public places for the meeting of merchants in most of the trading cities in the empire; that built at Rome in the 259th year after its foundation, under the consulate of Appius Claudius and Publius Servilius, was denominated the *college of merchants*; some remains of it are still to be seen, and are known by the modern Romans under the name *loggia*. The Hans Towns, after the example of the Romans, gave the name of *colleges* to their burses.

BURBLEM, a market-town of the hundred of Fircill, in the county of Stafford, 151 miles from London, on an elevated spot near the Trent and Mersey Canal, about one mile from an underground tunnel 1880 yards in length. It is one of the most important towns in the potteries, in a thickly-peopled neighbourhood, where the chief employment is making the various kinds of earthenware. It has good markets on Mondays and Saturdays. The number of inhabitants amounted in 1801 to 6578, in 1811 to 8625, in 1821 to 9699, and in 1831 to 11,250.

BURTON, ROBERT, known to the learned by the name of *Democritus junior*, was a younger brother of the William Burton who wrote the *Antiquities of Leicestershire*, and born of an ancient family at Lindley, in that county, upon the 8th of February 1576. He was educated in grammatical learning in the free school of Sutton Colfield, in Warwickshire; in the year 1593 he was sent to Brazenose College in Oxford; and in 1599 he was elected student of Christ-church. In 1616 he had conferred upon him by the dean and canons of Christ-church, the vicarage of St Thomas, in the west suburb of Oxford, to the parishioners of which it is said that he always gave the sacrament in wafers; and this, with the rectory of Segrave in Leicestershire, given him some time afterwards by George Lord Berkeley, he held to the day of his death, which happened in January 1639. He was a man of general learning, a distinguished philosopher, an exact mathematician, and, what constitutes the peculiarity of his character, a very curious calculator of nativities. He was extremely studious, and of a melancholy turn; yet an agreeable companion, and very humorous. The *Anatomy of Melancholy*, by *Democritus junior*, as he calls himself, shows that these different qualities were strangely mixed together in his composition. This book was printed first in quarto, afterwards in folio, in 1624, 1632, 1638, and 1652, to the great colomolment of the bookseller, who, as Mr Wood tells us, got an estate

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by it. Some circumstances attending his death occasioned strange suspicions. He died in his chamber at or very near the time which, it seems, he had some years before predicted from the calculation of his nativity; and this exactness made it whispered about that, for the glory of astrology, and rather than that his calculation should fail, he became a *pro de se*. This, however, was generally discredited. He was buried with due solemnity in the cathedral of Christ-church, and had a fair monument erected to his memory. He left behind him a very choice collection of books, many of which he bequeathed to the Bodleian Library, and a hundred pounds to Christ-church, the interest of which was to be laid out yearly in books for their library.

BURTON, John, D.D. a learned divine, was born in 1696, at Wembworth, in Devonshire, of which parish his father was rector. He was educated at Corpus Christi College, Oxford. In 1725, being then pro-rector and master of the schools, he spoke a Latin oration before the determining bachelor, which is entitled "*Heli*, or an Instance of a Magistrate's erring through unseasonable Lenity; written and published with a view to encourage the salutary exercise of academical discipline;" and he afterwards treated the same subject still more fully in four Latin sermons before the university, and published them with appendices. He also introduced into the schools, Locke, and other eminent modern philosophers, as suitable companions to Aristotle; and printed a double series of philosophical questions for the use of the younger students; from which Mr Johnson of Magdalen College, Cambridge, took the hint of his larger work of the same kind, which has gone through several editions. When the settling of Georgia was in agitation, Dr Bray, justly revered for his institution of parochial libraries, Dr Stephen Hales, Dr Berriman, and other learned divines, entreated Mr Burton's pious assistance in that undertaking. This he readily gave, by preaching before the society in 1732, and publishing his sermon, with an appendix on the state of that colony; and he afterwards published an account of the designs of the associates of Dr Bray, with an account of their proceedings. About the same time, on the death of Dr Edward Littleton, he was presented by Eton College to the vicarage of Maple-Deham, in Oxfordshire. Here a melancholy scene, which too often appears in the mansions of the clergy, presented itself to his view; a widow, with three infant daughters, without a home, without a fortune. From his compassion arose love, the consequence of which was marriage; for Mrs Littleton was handsome, elegant, accomplished, ingenious, and had great sweetness of temper. In 1760 he exchanged his vicarage of Maple-Deham for the rectory of Worpleston in Surrey. In his advanced age, finding his eyes begin to fail him, he collected and published, in one volume, all his scattered pieces, under the title of *Opuscula Miscellanea*; and soon after died, on the 11th of February 1771.

BURTON-UPON-TRENT, a market-town of the hundred of Offlow, in the county of Stafford, 128 miles from London. The river Trent is navigable for large barges as high as the bridge at this town. It is celebrated for ale of peculiar excellence, and has some manufactures of hats, cotton goods, and iron, with several tanneries. The market, which is large, is held on Thursday. The country around it is very fertile in corn. The inhabitants amounted in 1801 to 3679, in 1811 to 3979, in 1821 to 4114, and in 1831 to 4399.

BURY, a market-town of the hundred of Salford, in the county of Lancaster, 194 miles from London, on the river Irwell. It is celebrated for its extensive printing grounds, which have been the foundation of the large fortune of

Sir Robert Peel. Some other branches of the cotton trade are carried on here. The market is held on Thursday, and well supplied. The inhabitants amounted in 1801 to 7072, in 1811 to 8762, in 1821 to 10,583, and in 1831 to 15,086.

BURY ST EDMUNDS, a market and borough town of the hundred of Thingoe, in the county of Suffolk, 71 miles from London. The river Bourn or Dark, which runs through the town, is navigable to Lynn. The ancient abbey is a magnificent pile of ruins. It is a clean, well-built, and well-paved town, with a handsome guild-hall, theatre, and other public buildings. The assizes for the county are held here. The markets are held on Wednesday and Friday. The inhabitants amounted in 1801 to 7655, in 1811 to 7986, in 1821 to 9999, and in 1831 to 11,436.

BURYING. See BURIAL.

BURYING ALIVE was the punishment of a vestal who had violated her vow of virginity. The unhappy priestess was let down into a deep pit, with bread, water, milk, oil, a lamp burning, and a bed to lie on. But this was only for show; for the moment she was let down, they began to cast in the earth upon her till the pit was filled up. Some middle-age writers seem to make burying alive the punishment of a female thief.

BURYING PLACE. The ancients buried out of cities and towns; a usage which we find equally among Jews, Greeks, and Romans. Amongst the last, burying within the walls was expressly prohibited by a law of the twelve tables. The usual places of internment were in the suburbs and fields, but especially by the way sides. We have instances, however, of persons buried in the city; but it was a favour allowed only to a few of singular merit in the commonwealth. Plutarch says, those who had triumphed were indulged in it. He thus it will, Val. Publicola, and C. Fabricius, are said to have had tombs in the forum; and Cicero adds Tubertus to the number. Lycurgus allowed his Lacedaemonians to bury their dead within the city and round their temples, that the youth, being inured to such spectacles, might be the less terrified with the apprehension of death. Two reasons are alleged why the ancients buried out of cities: the first, an opinion that the sight, touch, or even neighbourhood of a corpse, defiled a man, especially a priest; whence that rule in A. Gellius, that the *flamen dialis* might not on any account enter a place where there was a grave: the second, to prevent the air from being corrupted by the stench of putrid bodies, and the buildings from being endangered by the frequency of funeral fires.

Burying in churches was not allowed for the first three hundred years after Christ; and the same was severely prohibited by the Christian emperors for many ages afterwards. The first step towards it appears to have been the practice of erecting churches over the graves of some martyrs in the country, and translating the relics of others into churches in the city: the next was, allowing kings and emperors to be buried in the atrium or church-porch. In the sixth century, the people began to be admitted into the church-yards; and some princes, founders, and bishops, into the church. From that time the matter seems to have been left to the discretion of the bishop.

BUSBEC, AUGER GISEL, LORD OF, a person illustrious on account of his embassies, was born at Commines in the year 1522, and educated at the famous universities of Louvain, Paris, Venice, Bologna, and Padua. He was engaged in several important employments and negotiations, and in particular was twice sent ambassador by the king of the Romans to the emperor Soliman. He collected inscriptions, bought manuscripts, searched after rare plants, inquired into the nature of animals; and in his second journey to Constantinople carried with him a painter, that

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he might be able to communicate to the curious the figures, at least, of the plants and animals that were not well known in the West. He wrote a Discourse of the State of the Ottoman Empire, and a Relation of his Two Journeys to Turkey, which are much esteemed. He died in 1592.

BUSBY, DR RICHARD, son of a gentleman in Westminster, was born at Lutton in Lincolnshire in 1606. He passed through the classes in Westminster as king's scholar, and completed his studies at Christ-church, Oxford. In 1640 he was appointed master of Westminster school; and by his skill and diligence in the discharge of this important and laborious office for the space of fifty-five years, bred up the greatest number of eminent men, in church and state, that ever at one time adorned any age or nation. He was severe in his school; though he applauded wit in his scholars, even when it reflected on himself. He died in 1695, aged eighty-nine, and was buried in Westminster Abbey, where there is a fine monument erected for him, with a Latin inscription. He composed several books for the use of his school.

BUSCHING, ANTHONY FREDERICK. This very eminent geographer was born at Stadthagen, a village of Westphalia, on the 27th September 1724. In his youth he laboured under peculiar disadvantages, arising from the disorderly life led by his father, and from the narrow means of education which his native town afforded. Fortunately a clergyman of the name of Hauber, pleased with the promising talents of the young man, undertook to give him gratuitous instruction. He laid a solid foundation of learning, and also of a piety which, though fervent, was always accompanied with moderation and mildness. At the age of eighteen, young Busching was driven from his father's house, on account of the zeal with which he espoused the cause of his patron, on occasion of a controversy in which he was involved. Hauber, however, procured for him the means of continuing his studies at Halle. There, by his application to learning, and his irreproachable conduct, he acquired numerous friends. They procured him the appointment of tutor in the family of the Count de Lynars, who was then going as ambassador to Petersburg. The observations made by Busching on this journey decided the pursuits of his future life. In traveling through Poland and Russia, he compared the actual features of those regions with the descriptions given of them. He thus became sensible of the miserably defective state of geographical science, and resolved to devote his life to its improvement. He withdrew as soon as possible from the count's family, and went to reside at Copenhagen, devoting himself entirely to this new pursuit. In 1752 he presented the first specimen of his powers in a *Description of the Counties of Sleswig and Holstein*, a work which produced a favourable idea of his accuracy and ability. He soon after removed to Göttingen, and married Christiana Dilthey, a young lady of great accomplishments, authoress of a volume of poems, and to whom he had been engaged from the time of his departure to Russia. Here, on account of a work which appeared to dissent from some of the Lutheran tenets, he was excluded from the theological chair, for which he had become a candidate. The chagrin occasioned by this disappointment induced him to accept an invitation to the German congregation at Petersburg. He was employed there, also, in organizing a school, which, under his auspices, soon became one of the most flourishing in the north. This school was superintended by Marshal Munich, who at first showed great favour to Busching; but being accustomed to entire obsequiousness from all connected with him, the marshal did not accommodate himself to the hardy independence of the German sage. A collision arose, in consequence of which Busching announced to his congregation that he

Busching.

was under the necessity of returning to Germany. The empress expressed much dissatisfaction at the conduct of Munich, and made very high offers to Busching if he would consent to remain; but he deemed it unworthy of him, after having resisted the entreaties of his congregation, to yield to the favours of the court. He returned to Germany without any fixed object or establishment in life, and went at first to reside at Altona. Next year, however, he was called to superintend an extensive establishment for education, which had been formed at Berlin, under the auspices of the great Frederick. His appointments here were liberal, and his exertions proved of signal benefit to the institution of which he became the head. His writings and example gave a new impulse to education throughout Prussia. He spent a number of hours every day in the institute, superintending the progress of every pupil, and inspected the minutest details connected with its prosperity. He gave also courses of lectures on the history of the arts and sciences. This labour did not interrupt the composition of his numerous works. The queen loved his society, and at first often invited him to dine with her; but, finding that such engagements occupied too much of his time, he entreated her majesty to allow him to devote himself as much as possible to his numerous labours. Though seized with dropsy, which occasioned a series of the most cruel sufferings, he did not remit his academical labours, till the disease coming to a crisis, terminated his life on the 28th May 1793, in the 69th year of his age. His wife had died in 1777, and he had contracted a second marriage with Mademoiselle Reinbeck, the daughter of a clergyman at Berlin. By the first marriage he had two children, who survived him; by the second he had six, who, except one, all died in infancy.

Few authors, even in Germany, have produced a greater number of works than Busching. The entire number, as enumerated by Meusel, in his *Lexicon of German Authors*, amounts to more than a hundred. They may all be classed under the following heads: 1. Geography and History; 2. Education; 3. Religion; 4. Biography. The first class comprehends those upon which his fame chiefly rests. He possessed not, indeed, the geographical genius, if we may so speak, of D'Anville, his skill in the construction of maps, his quick eye, or his sagacity in eliciting the truth from hints and imperfect notices. He may be regarded, however, as the creator of modern *Statistics*, that science which exhibits the present state of every kingdom, its civil and political constitution, its wealth, the productions of nature, the exchanges of commerce, and the establishments for public instruction; all these particulars are detailed in his works in the fullest manner, and from the most careful investigation of original materials. His works, devoid of the ornaments of style, and composed of minute details, are rather useful to consult than profitable to read; but this is a fault to which most writers of his country are liable. His grand work is the *Neue Erdbeschreibung, New Geographical Description of the Globe*. The first four parts, which comprehend Europe, were published in four successive volumes, from 1754 to 1761, and have been translated into all the European languages. They appeared in English with a preface by Murdoch, in six volumes 4to, London, 1762. He published also, in 1768, the fifth part, being the first volume upon Asia, containing *Asiatic Turkey and Arabia*. It displays an immense extent of research, and is generally considered as his masterpiece; but it has not been translated either into French or English.

Besides this great geographical work, Busching was the editor of a valuable collection, entitled *Magazine for the History and Geography of Modern Times*, 22 vols. 4to, 1767-88; also of a *Journal appropriated to the Notice of Maps*, Berlin, 1773-87.

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The elementary works on education published by Busching are very numerous, and have long held a distinguished place, even in a country so eminent as Germany, in this branch of literature. If in some departments better works have now been produced, it is by labouring on the foundation of Busching. His theological writings are not very highly esteemed. In biography he wrote a number of articles for the *Historical Magazine*; also *A Collection of Biography*, in six volumes, 1783-9, including a very elaborate life of the great Frederick. (E.)

BUSEO, a town in the eastern division of Wallachia, the seat of a Greek bishop, and the capital of the district of the same name, which comprehends one town, and 218 villages. It has several churches, mostly of the Greek communion, 1500 houses, and 4900 inhabitants, who carry on considerable trade.

BUSH, PAUL, the first bishop of Bristol, became a student in the university of Oxford about the year 1513, and in 1518 took the degree of bachelor of arts. He afterwards became a brother of the order called *bonhommes*; of which, after studying some time among the friars of St Austin, now Wadham College, he was elected provincial. In that station he lived many years, till at length King Henry VIII. being informed of his great knowledge in divinity and physic, made him his chaplain, and in 1542 appointed him to the new episcopal see of Bristol; but Bush having, in the reign of Edward VI., taken a wife, he was on the accession of Mary deprived of his dignity, and spent the remainder of his life in a private station at Bristol, where he died in the year 1558, aged sixty-eight, and was buried on the north side of the choir of the cathedral. Wood says, that while he was a student at Oxford, he was numbered among the celebrated poets of that university; and Pitt gives him the character of a faithful Catholic, notwithstanding his want of chastity. He wrote, 1. An Exhortation to Margaret Burgess, wife to John Burgess, clothier, of King's Wood, in the county of Wilts. London, printed in the reign of Edward VI. 8vo. 2. Notes on the Psalms. 3. Treatise in Praise of the Cross. 4. Answer to certain Queries concerning the abuse of the Mass, Records, No. 25. 5. Dialogues between Christ and the Virgin Mary. 6. Treatise of Slaves, and Curing Remedies. 7. A little treatise called the Extirpation of Ignorancy. 8. Carmina diversa.

BUSHIAB, an island in the Persian Gulf, about sixteen miles in length and five or six in breadth, separated from the mainland by a channel of considerable breadth, from which runs a long ridge of rocks. It is inhabited, and covered with date trees. The chief resides at the east end, and subsists partly by piratical adventures. Long. 53. 4. E. Lat. 27. 2. N.

BUSHEL. See WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

BUSHIRE, ARABICHIH, a town of Persia, in the province of Fars, situated in the Persian Gulf. The surrounding country is a parched and barren desert, consisting of brown sand or grey clay and rock, unenlivened by any kind of vegetation. The town, which is of a triangular form, occupies the southern extremity of a peninsula eleven miles long and four broad, and is encircled on all sides except the south by water; but in high tides and storms it has sometimes been completely insulated. This, however, is not likely to happen again, as the water is fast receding from the town. It is fortified on the land side by a mud wall mounting twelve pieces of cannon. The streets are very narrow, and, like all the towns and villages in this country, it is but a mean place, being in fact little better than a collection of clay houses, surrounded by walls and towers of the same material. At a distance they can scarcely be discerned from the surface of the ground; they resemble any thing rather than the habitations of man; and they

are enveloped in dirt and every species of discomfort. The heat here is intolerable, ranging in summer from 87° to 90°, and sometimes to 100°, 105°, and 106°; so that few even of the natives can endure it. To add to this evil, there is scarcely a drop of sweet water to be had within the walls. There are wells in the sandy peninsula on which the town is situated, which are dug to the depth of thirty fathoms, and from which sweet water is brought from a great distance. The East India Company have a factory at this place, but the apartments are small, comfortless, and ill aired. A better house was at one time built, but the jealousy of the Persian government being awakened, an order was sent to raise it to the ground. A considerable exportation takes place of Persian commodities, such as carpets, wine of Shiraz, rose-water, drugs, &c.; and the imports are Indian goods of different kinds, and English manufactures. Not more than eight ships under English colours frequent the port, and about six under those of Muscat, making an average of about 4500 tons of shipping. The outer roads, where ships exceeding 300 tons burden can alone anchor, are upwards of six miles from the town. The anchorage is tolerably good; but during the fury of the north-west winds ships are frequently obliged to cut their cables and bear up for Karak. The inner roads afford better shelter, but are also at some distance from the shore. The population is said by Morier to amount to 10,000; others state it at 5000. It is ten miles west-south-west of Shiraz. Long. 50. 43. E. Lat. 28. 59. N.

BUSHIHS, in *Ancient Geography*, a city of Lower Egypt, to the south of Leontopolis, on that branch of the Nile called Busiriticus. It is said to have been built by Busiris, who was noted for his cruelty, and was slain by Hercules.

BUSK, a city of the circle of Lemberg, in the Austrian province of Galicia. It is situated on the river Bug, which runs from a beautiful lake here. The inhabitants are about 3150, and have four churches, three Greek and one Catholic, and manufactures of leather and of paper.

BUSKIN, a kind of shoe, somewhat in the form of a boot, and adapted to either foot, and worn by either sex. This part of dress, covering both the foot and mid-leg, was tied underneath the knee; it was very rich and fine, and principally used on the stage by actors in tragedy. It was of a quadrangular form; and the sole was so thick, that by means of it men of the ordinary stature might be raised to the pitch and elevation of the heroes they personated. The colour was generally purple on the stage; and herein it was distinguished from the sock worn in comedy, which was only a low common shoe. The buskin seems to have been worn not only by actors, but by girls, to increase their height; travellers and hunters also made use of it to defend themselves from the mire. In classic authors we frequently find the buskin used to signify tragedy itself; and it was also understood as signifying a lofty strain or elevated style.

BUSS, in maritime affairs, a small sea vessel, used in the herring fishery, commonly from forty-eight to sixty tons burden, and sometimes more. A buss has two small sheds or cabins, one at the prow and the other at the stern; and that at the prow serves for a kitchen.

BUSSOLENGO, a town of the Austrian kingdom of Venetian Lombardy, in the delgration of Verona. It is situated on the river Etch, and contains about 3000 inhabitants, chiefly employed in the manufacture of linen goods.

BUSSORA, BARSORA, BALSORA, or BASRA, a celebrated city of Asia, in the government of Bagdad, situated on the western bank of the Shut-ul-Arab, about seventy miles from the mouth of this noble stream, which is navigable to the city for ships of 500 tons burden. Bussora is surrounded by walls, which are kept in a tolerable state of repair.

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Bussora.

Bussora. They have five gates, and are at the lowest computation about seven miles in circuit. They are washed by the river, which frequently inundates the low-lying plain in which the city is situated, so that it appears like an island in the middle of a lake. It is, without exception, the most filthy town that can be conceived; the streets are exceedingly narrow; and the stench arising from nuisances, everywhere exposed to view, is intolerable. The houses are meanly built, partly of sun-dried, and partly of burnt bricks, with flat roofs, surmounted by a parapet; and the bazars, though stocked with the richest merchandise, are miserable structures, not arched, as in Bagdad and the Persian towns, but covered with mats laid on rafters of date trees, which hardly afford protection from the scorching rays of the sun. Of the vast area within the walls, the greater proportion is occupied with gardens and plantations of palm trees, intersected by a number of little canals, cleaned twice a day, on the ebb and flow of the tide, which rises here about nine feet. The largest of these canals, which approaches the English factory and the palace of the governor, situated about two miles from the river, is continually crowded with small vessels. The town has scarcely any public buildings that deserve notice. It has khans and coffee-houses without number, a wretched humum, and upwards of forty mosques, of which one only is worthy of the name; and this, with the palace of the governor and the English factory, which are all contiguous to one another, are the only decent buildings in the place. The population is a heterogeneous mixture of all the nations in the East, and consists of Turks, Arabs, Indians, Persians, Armenians, Jacobites, and Jews. The Arabs, however, constitute the principal class; and the Turks, though they are masters of the town, are not numerous.

Bussora is a great emporium of Indian commerce. Three or four English ships of about 400 tons burden arrive in the course of a year from Calcutta; but the chief part of the traffic is carried on in Arabian bottoms; and the merchants of Muscat possess some of the finest vessels that navigate the Indian seas. From various parts of Hindustan, Bussora receives silk, muslin, linen, white and blue cloth for the clothing of the Arabians, gold and silver stuffs, various metals, sandal wood, and indigo; pearls from Bahrein, and coffee from Mocha; shawls, fruit, and the precious metals from Persia; spices from Java; and European commodities, which are scarce and dear, from different parts. The trade with the interior is conducted by means of caravans to Aleppo and Bagdad, whence the goods are conveyed to Constantinople. The returns are made in Indian goods, bullion, pearls, dates, copper, raw silk; horses, which being very strong and beautiful, are exported by the English; and galls-nuts. A Turkish fleet was formerly stationed here, which suppressed all piratical adventures in the Persian Gulf. But it is now reduced to ten or twelve decayed hulks, incapable of putting out of the river; and the dignified office of capitan pasha, then held immediately under the Porte, is now one of the most insignificant appointments in the gift of the pasha of Bagdad.

The situation of the town is unhealthy, owing to the inundations of the river, from which noxious exhalations arise, and strangers are commonly attacked by fever after a short residence. The adjoining country is fertile, producing, besides rice, wheat, barley, and dates of different species, a variety of fruits and vegetables, such as apricots, apples, figs, olives, pomegranates, and grapes; and cabbages, broccoli, lettuce, onions, peas, beans, and truffles, in vast quantities. There are whole fields of roses, which the inhabitants cultivate for the purposes of distillation. The licorice plant also grows amidst the date groves on the borders of the river. The wild Arabs from the neigh-

bouring deserts frequently harass the peasants by their predatory incursions. To guard against these, and to protect the farms and country houses, Abdulla Aga has built a wall for sixty miles along the adjoining desert, at all the gates of which guards are placed. But flying parties of Arabs still break through this barrier, and annoy the peaceable inhabitants.

The city of Bussora was founded by Omar, A. D. 636; and its situation was so favourable for commerce, that in a few years it became a large and flourishing city. It was conquered by the Turks in 1668, and since that period has experienced many revolutions. It was taken in 1777, after a siege of eight months, by the Persians under Sadick Khan. In about a year it fell again into the hands of the Turks, who were again deprived of it by the schek of the Montefidege Arabs. The town was in October following recovered by Solyman Pasha, who encountered the schek on the banks of the Euphrates, and put him to flight. The governor has ever since been sent from Bagdad, and is generally an officer of high rank. The population is estimated at 60,000. It is 210 miles south from Ispahan, and 1815 south-east from Constantinople. Long. 44. 46. E. Lat. 30. 32. N. (Kinnier's *Geographical Memoir of the Persian Empire*.)

BUST, or **BUSTO**, in *Sculpture*, denotes the figure or portrait of a person in relief, showing only the head, shoulders, and stomach, the arms being lopped off, and ordinarily placed on a pedestal or console.

In speaking of an antique, we say the head is marble, and the bust porphyry or bronze, that is, the stomach and shoulders. Felibien observes, that though in painting one may say a figure appears in busto, yet it is not properly called a *bust*, that word being confined to things in relief. The bust is the same with what the Latins called *Hermæ*, from the Greek *Hermes*, Mercury, the image of that god being frequently represented in this manner amongst the Athenians.

Bust is also used, especially by the Italians, for the trunk of a human body, from the neck to the hips.

BUSTAR, a town of Hindustan, in the province of Gundwana, the capital of an independent rajah, whose subjects are among the most barbarous of any people in Hindustan. Long. 82. 38. E. Lat. 19. 44. N.

BUSTARD. See *ORNITHOLOGY*, *Index*.

BUSTARD BAY, a bay on the east coast of New Holland, in which there is a channel leading to a large lagoon. There is space here for a few ships to lie in safety, but access to the lagoon is prevented by shallows. Around the sides of the bay are salt marshes and bogs, and mangroves grow in various places. The bay derived its name from one of Captain Cook's officers having shot a bustard here. Many other large birds frequent the shore, and great quantities of the hammer and pearl oysters are found under the mangroves. The country is but thinly inhabited, and the natives bear a resemblance to those in the other parts of New Holland. Long. 98. 18. W. Lat. 24. 4. S.

BUSTUARI, in *Roman Antiquity*, gladiators who fought about the bustum or funeral pile of a person of distinction, in order that the blood which was spilt might serve as a sacrifice to the infernal gods, and render them more propitious to the manes of the deceased. This custom was introduced in the room of the more inhuman one of sacrificing captives at the bustum, or on the tombs of warriors.

BUSTUM, in *Antiquity*, denotes a pyramid or pile of wood, whereon were anciently placed the bodies of the deceased, in order to be burnt.

The Romans borrowed the custom of burning their dead from the Greeks. The deceased, crowned with flowers, and dressed in his richest habits, was laid on the bustum. Some authors say it was only called *bustum* after the burn-

Bust

Bustum

Bustum *ing, quasi bene ustum vel combustum*: before the burning it was more properly called *pyra*, during it *rogus*, and afterwards *bustum*. When the body was only burnt there, and buried elsewhere, the place was not properly called *bustum*, but *ustrini*, or *ustrinum*.

BUTUM, in the *Compos Martius*, was a structure whereon the Emperor Augustus first, and after him the bodies of his successors, were burnt. It was built of white stone, surrounded with an iron pallisade, and planted within with alder trees.

BUSTUM was also figuratively applied to denote any tomb; whence the phrases *facere bustum*, *violare bustum*, and the like.

BUSTUM of an *Altar*, was the hearth or place where the fire was kindled.

BUSVAGON, an island in the Eastern Seas, belonging to the Philippines, fifty miles in length by thirteen in average breadth, and situated in the 12th degree of north latitude.

BUTCHER, a person who slaughters cattle for the use of the table, or who cuts up and retails the same. Among the ancient Romans there were three kinds of established butchers, whose office it was to furnish the city with the necessary cattle, and to take care of preparing and vending their flesh. The *suarii* provided hogs; the *pecuarii* or *boarii* other cattle, especially oxen; and under these was a subordinate class, whose office it was to kill, called *kani* and *carnifices*.

BUTCHER-BIRD. See *ORNITHOLOGY, Index*.

BUTESHIRE, a county on the west coast of Scotland, in the Frith of Clyde, is composed of seven islands, viz. Bute, Arran, Great Cumbrae, Little Cumbrae, Inchmarock, Lamlash, and Pladda.

Bute, from which the county derives its name, is situated between longitude 4. 51. and 5. 2. W., and latitude 55. 41. and 55. 43. N., and is sixteen miles west from Greenock, thirty-eight miles from Glasgow, and eighty-three from Edinburgh; but the usual route to these places is about four or five miles longer. It is about fifteen miles long, in a straight line from north-north-west to south-south-east, and the average breadth is three miles and a half, although it is much indented with bays; in some places it is not above half that breadth, but in other places it is at least a mile broader. It is separated on the north from the district of Cowal in Argyshire by the Kyles of Bute, which for a considerable distance along shore is not above half a mile broad. The more southerly part of the island is separated from Argyshire by the Frith of Clyde, which is from five to seven miles broad; but the channel is much narrowed by the islands of Cumbrae, being situated betwixt Bute and Argyshire, and distant from Bute about three miles, but much nearer Argyshire. Arran lies off the south point of Bute, distant about eight miles; and Skipness in Argyshire bounds it on the west at about the same distance as Arran.

There is considerable uncertainty as to the origin of the name of Bute. Some contend that it is derived from Both, signifying in the Irish tongue a cell; and they ground this on the fact, that it has been so written by ancient authors, and that St Brendan, an Irish abbot, caused a cell to be erected on it in the sixth century. It has been written Both, Bote, Boot, and Botia; but Mr Blain, some time commissary of the isles, and sheriff-substitute of Buteshire, in his manuscript history of Bute, endeavours to show, with considerable ingenuity, that it has been derived from the old British word *Ey Budh*, or Gaelic word *Ey Bhiod*, signifying the Island of Corn or Island of Food, from its being more fertile than the adjacent highland countries; and this opinion appears to be still further supported by the fact, that at the time of valuing the teinds, the grain in the island amounted to about

34,700 bolls. The Butemen were anciently considered as Buteshire, a distinct people, and refused to be reckoned a part of the highlands, or even of the lowlands. The island contains about 30,000 English acres, of which about two thirds may be considered as arable; the remainder consists of woods, muirs, mosses, and lakes. There are six lakes in the island. The largest, Loch Fad, extended originally to 138 acres, but is now considerably enlarged by the embankments of the cotton spinning company, whose works are placed on the water flowing from this lake. Ascog Loch extends to seventy-two acres. The water flowing from this loch has also an excellent fall for a mill or other public work; but nothing further has yet been erected on it than a dye-work, and a carding and wauking mill. It is hoped, however, that it will soon be made more available. Quilen Loch covers fifty-four acres; Greenan Loch, twelve acres; Loch Dhu, or Black Loch, nine acres; and Lochan-tarbh, five acres. The climate is very mild, genial, and healthy, more so than in any other part of the west of Scotland. It is frequently compared to Devonshire, and in some respects is considered as superior. The lofty mountains of Arran and Argyshire skirt it on the west and south, and break the clouds coming from the Western Ocean, so that they pass over Bute with a discharge of comparatively but little of their contents, and less rain falls here than on the rest of the west coast of Scotland. In summer the air is kept cool by the sea breeze, and in winter the same cause prevents intense frost; white snow seldom falls to the depth of twelve inches, and very rarely remains above two or three days on the ground. The winds most prevalent blow from the south and west.

Agriculture, under the fostering care of the Marquis of Bute, has of late years made considerable progress in the island, especially in the middle and southern divisions. The soil in the southern half of the island is light and sandy; in the more northern it is of a clayey nature. The land is generally well subdivided with ditches and white-thorn hedges. Crops of all kinds common in the lowlands are produced in Bute.

Freestone and coal are both found in the island, but neither to any great extent. Several attempts have been made to get a good working vein of coals, but hitherto without success. But slate and lime are found in it. The slate has been principally wrought on the estate of Kames, formerly the seat of Sir William M-Less Bannatyne, one of the lords of session, but now possessed by James Hamilton, Esq. The lime has been chiefly wrought in the south end of the island, in the parish of Kingarth; and that manufactured there is considered as equal, if not superior, in point of adhesiveness, to the far-famed Arden lime of Lanarkshire, when properly wrought; and it is much cheaper, though not so white in the colour. Inexhaustible beds of shells are found on the west side of the island, and considerable quantities of sea-weed are driven in upon the shores. The rocks in the north end are chiefly mica, clay, and chlorite slate, intersected with quartz and trap. Whinstone is chiefly found near the town of Rothesay, and sandstone stretches along from thence to the south.

Excellent banks for fishing are found round the island; and the herring fishery is prosecuted vigorously by the inhabitants, especially by residents in Rothesay.

The Marquis of Bute is the chief proprietor of the island. His seat is Mountstuart, beautifully situated on the east side of the island, about four miles from Rothesay. The real rent of his property in the island is about L.8000, including L.440 of feu-duty for ground feued chiefly within the burgh of Rothesay. The other proprietors of any extent are James Hamilton, Esq. of Kames, rent L.1500; Kirkman Findlay, Esq. of Kilmahalsnaig,

Buteshire. L.500; Robert Thom, Esq. of Ascog; L.900; McConcehy of Ambrishol; L.70; James McKay of Garraich; L.70.

The burgh of Rothesay, the capital of the island and shire, is beautifully situated at the head of a deep bay on the north-east side of the island, where there is safe anchorage-ground for vessels of any size and any wind, and room enough to contain a very large fleet. The territory of the burgh is about nine miles in circumference, extending fully a mile beyond the town on the east, south, and west sides. The burgh has an extensive harbour, built in 1822, at an expense of £6000. The shipping belonging to this port carries upwards of 4000 tons. There is a large spinning factory, consisting of two mills, in Rothesay, driven by water from Loch Fad; and it may be worthy of notice, that the second mill erected in Scotland for the spinning of cotton was upon this water only about fifty-five years ago, when the business was carried on with the strictest secrecy. The house then used was a thatched building, which is still standing. A power-loom factory, wrought by a steam-engine, has lately been erected. But the herring fishery has proved the chief source of employment to the male population. In 1830 there were about 400 men and 3000 tons of shipping employed in this trade, besides a great number of small wherries occupied in fishing about the island and neighbourhood. Several steam-boats ply daily to and from Glasgow and the intermediate ports. These convey the mail; and in the summer season there are generally two, and sometimes three mails in the day.

There are four places of worship in Rothesay; the parish church, situated on a gentle eminence about a quarter of a mile from the town; a chapel of ease, erected in 1800; a united secession church; and a reformed Presbyterian church. The county jail is situated in Rothesay, where the head courts of the shire are held. The sheriff court is held every Wednesday, and the burgh court every Thursday. The ruins of an ancient castle, which was once the residence of the kings of Scotland, are situated in the middle of the town. It originally consisted of a circular court, 138 feet in diameter, surrounded by a wall eight feet thick and seventeen feet high, with battlements. It had four towers, and was surrounded by a wet ditch. It is supposed to have been built about the year 1100, though the particular date is not known. It is first mentioned in history in 1288. Heulbee, king of the Isles, was killed in besieging this castle in 1263. It was taken possession of by the English during the reign of John Balliol, but surrendered to Robert the Bruce in 1311. King Robert the Second built a palace adjoining the castle, and frequently took up his residence in it between 1376 and 1398, when he created his eldest son Prince David Duke of Rothesay, a title which the king's eldest son still bears. This was the first dukedom conferred in Scotland. On the 12th January 1400 Robert granted the charter of erection of the burgh of Rothesay. He died in the castle of Rothesay on 4th April 1406, and was buried in the abbey of Paisley. This castle was burned by the Earl of Argyll's brother in 1685, and has since remained in ruins. The population of the burgh of Rothesay in 1831 was 4817, besides upwards of 300 seamen belonging to registered vessels, not included in the census.

The island is divided into two parishes, Rothesay and Kingarth; the former containing a population of 6081, including the burgh; and the latter 746; thus making the whole population of the island 6830, exclusive of seamen, of whom there are betwixt 300 and 400 belonging to or connected with registered vessels. This island is highly esteemed, and is much resorted to as sea-bathing quarters in the summer season; and many invalids are induced, by the mildness of the climate, to reside there during winter.

There are several remains of druidical monuments on the

island, but the chief or most entire is at Langalchorid, in Buteshire, the parish of Kingarth. At Dunagol, in this parish, there is a vitrified fort, and the remains of an old church and burying-ground, where, until after the reformation, the two sexes were not allowed to intermingle. Near this church there is a circular inclosure called the Devil's Cauldron, where penance was wont to be performed. As this rite of superstition is somewhat singular, we shall describe it. Transgressors were imprisoned in this terrene purgatory for a given time, which, it may be readily conceived, was meted out according to the magnitude of the offences committed, being sometimes for several days and nights together. The priest threatened eternal punishment to the whole party if but one of their number fell asleep. To provide against this, the penitents were furnished with a sharp instrument, with which they kept pricking each other when inclined to somnolency.

There are three small villages in the island; Port Bannatyne, situated at the head of Kames Bay, about two and a half miles from Rothesay; Kerrycroft, near Mount Stuart, the seat of the Marquis of Bute; and Kileatten Bay, situated on the south side of the island. The natives formerly spoke the English and Gaelic languages indifferently, but English is now chiefly spoken.

Arran is situated about eight miles south of Bute. It is very mountainous. Goatfield, a mountain situated about the centre of the island, is 2945 feet high; and some others approach to that height. There is a remarkably fine view from this mountain on all sides, whence is seen part of the Atlantic Ocean, Ireland, the counties of Ayr, Renfrew, Argyll, and Bute, the Frith of Clyde, Loch Fine, and hundreds of other scenes both grand and picturesque. There are many druidical remains and monumental stones on the island. Fingal's Cave is still pointed out; and tradition says Ossian lived on this island. It is about twenty miles long and eleven broad, and contains about 106,000 English acres, 15,000 of which only are arable. Abundance of game and some wild deer are found on the mountains. These are either bare rocks, or only covered with heath and fern. There is comparatively little wood in the island, except near Brodick Castle. The climate in winter is very severe, and generally moist. The whole island, except a few farms, belongs to the Duke of Hamilton, in which family it has been for several centuries. The roads are for the most part very good, having been chiefly made by the parliamentary commissioners a few years ago; and the expense of repairs is defrayed partly by the exchequer, and partly by the proprietors, in terms of the act 59 Geo. III. cap. 135. The herring fishery is prosecuted to a considerable extent, but this is almost wholly done by means of wherries and other small vessels. There are two excellent harbours in the island, Lamash and Loch Ranza, but without piers of any extent. There is a small pier at Brodick, but the bay is not well sheltered for anchorage. A very extensive pier was commenced at Lamash in the reign of Queen Anne, and a considerable part erected, but it was afterwards neglected; and all the stones above the water have from time to time been removed for building or other purposes, so that now the foundation can scarcely be traced; and the only landing place is a small jetty recently built. The island produces barley, bear, oats, peas, beans, potatoes, and turnips. The islanders have been long addicted to illicit distillation, a practice which has not yet been given up, although it has considerably diminished, owing, it is believed, to the strong laws enacted against it, and the firmness with which they are executed. The smugglers give a better price for the barley and bear than could otherwise be obtained, and this enables the tenants to pay a better rent. We see no reason why this demoralizing traffic should not be as effectual

Buteshire. ally put a stop to here as it has been in the Isle of Bute, by the exertions of the principal proprietor. From the prevalence of this practice, the inhabitants of Arran have acquired a very reserved and suspicious manner, especially in the presence of strangers. A visitor to Arran will be sometimes amazed to find, that in putting a question about any individual or place in the island, to any of the natives, no satisfactory answer will be returned, until he, in his turn, undergo a process of examination as to his purpose in landing, and his objects in asking for these persons and places; and, from the same cause, it is very difficult to discover the perpetrator of any crime, unless it be of very considerable magnitude. Agriculture was much neglected till of late; every farm being occupied by a society of tenants, among whom the arable part of the farm was divided in small lots, and the pasturage grounds and moors were a common under one herd; but they are now well subdivided. There has been a great emigration from this island to America of late years, although the inhabitants are strongly attached to their native soil. The language chiefly spoken by the natives is Gaelic, but they are rapidly advancing in the knowledge of English. The islanders are all Protestants, and strongly attached to the church of Scotland. Christianity is said to have been introduced here by St Molios, a disciple of St Columba. The island is divided into two parishes, and has also two chapels. The largest parish is named Kilmory, and contains 3771 inhabitants; the other parish is named Kilbride, and contains 2656 inhabitants, making the population of the island 6427, besides a few seamen belonging to registered vessels. The population of this island has rather decreased of late years, owing to emigration. Arran is highly celebrated for its mineralogy. (See Jameson's *Mineralogy of the Scottish Isles*, Heudrich's *Survey of Arran*, and Dr McCulloch's works.) Granite, rock crystal, quartz, and small-grained granite, are abundant in the northern division of the island. Mica slate and granitic unites at Catcask. Gneiss, micaceous schistus, and puddingstone, are abundant at Glenrosa. Quartz is found in all kinds of crystallization, in beds of clay slate and in other situations. Greenstone, sandstone resting on clay slate, basalt, trap, and limestone, are abundant. Pitchstone is found on the south, with pearlstone, ironstone, and porphyry; also flint, agate, siliceous spar, jasper, and various beautiful crystals.

Great Cumbrae is situated in the Frith of Clyde, betwixt Ayrshire and the island of Bute. It is the property of the Marquis of Bute and the Earl of Glasgow. It is about two miles and a half long, and one and a half broad, and measures about 2500 acres, one half of which is arable. It has a gentle ascent of about 400 feet from the sea to the centre of the island. The village of Millport is situated on the south-west side of the island, opposite which there is very safe anchorage-ground, and a small harbour is formed with a stone pier. The island abounds with lime and freestone. Considerable quantities of the freestone are exported, but the lime is seldom wrought. There are two basaltic rocks on the east side of the island, called Reppel Walls. It forms one parish, and has one church. The population in 1831 was 577, besides thirty-five seamen belonging to registered vessels.

Little Cumbrae lies about half a mile south of Great Cumbrae. It is the property of the Earl of Eglintoun. It is about a mile in length, and half a mile in breadth. Rabbits are very plentiful on this island. A light-house was erected in 1750 on the highest point of the island, but it was found that the fogs obscured the light; it was therefore removed to a lower situation. Three or four families live on it. The ruins of a castle are situated on the south side. The ascent from the shore is over rocks, which rise

one above another like steps of stairs. There are several Buteshire caves in the island, two of them very large. The extent of one of these is not known, but the other is thirty-two feet square, and six feet in height.

Inchmarnock is a low-lying, small, beautiful island, situated about a mile west from Bute. It takes its name from a chapel built on it, dedicated to St Marnoch, and which had a burying-ground attached. The ruins were visible till very lately, when they were removed by the rude hands of a farmer. It is about a mile long and half a mile broad, and is divided into three farms, and nearly one half is arable. It is the property of the Marquis of Bute, and abounds in sea shell or marl. The inhabitants acknowledge the spiritual jurisdiction of the parish of Rothesay, although it was long considered as belonging to Saddle in Argyshire, from the monks of St Marnoch being attached to the convent of Saddle; and still the minister of Kerry derives a portion of his stipend from this island.

Fladda is a small island, which lies about a mile south-east from Arran, on which there is a light-house, which directs the mariner to the Cumbrae light.

Lamlash is a small island situated in the mouth of Lamlash Bay, in Arran, and helps to form that safe and capacious harbour.

The valued rent of the county in Scots money is L.15,042, 13s. 10d. The lands belong to twelve proprietors. The valuation Scots of the Marquis of Bute's land is L.8066, 5s. 4½d.; that of the Duke of Hamilton, including a few farms belonging to Miss Ann Hamilton, is L.4955, 11s. Nearly one fourth of the lands in the county is entailed. The real rent of the lands in 1811 was L.18,560, 9s. 2d., of the houses L.2310, 1s. 7d. Of the thirty-three shires of Scotland, Bute was the twelfth in point of precedence in the Scottish parliament rolls and all public processions, though not entitled to that rank in point of valuation. It sent two members to parliament before the union; since that time, and till the passing of the reform bill, Bute and Caithness returned a member alternately; now Bute returns a member for itself. The family of Bute were hereditary sheriffs of the county for upwards of 360 years, until the jurisdictions were taken away in 1748. They were also lords of the regality of Bute. The present marquis is lord-lieutenant and high sheriff of the shire, and heritable coroner of the island of Bute, and keeper of the castle of Rothesay. Criminals usually tried before the justiciary court are sent to the circuit court at Inverary. Buteshire sends ten assizes to that circuit court. The islands of Bute and Cumbrae were granted by the sovereign of Scotland, at an early period, to the lord high steward; and when they fell under the power of Norway, the monarch of that country gave Bute and certain other islands to Reginald, king of Man. After the marriage of Alexander VI., lord high steward, with Jean, daughter and heiress of Angus, one of the grandsons of the king of Man, the islands of Bute, Arran, and Cumbrae became a favoured part of the patrimony of the lord high steward, between whom and the people a strong attachment subsisted; and they were, by way of distinction, called the Lord High Steward's Brandanets. It is probable that this name was derived from St Brandane, who flourished in the eleventh century. Sir John Stewart of Bute, from whom the family of Bute descended, was son to King Robert II., and received from his father the office of heritable sheriff, as well as an estate of lands in Bute and Arran. In the year 1544 the English burned the greater part of Bute and Arran. The shire of Bute contains 134 English square miles, or 98,547 English acres; and the population in 1831 amounted to 14,134, besides seamen belonging to registered vessels, of whom there might be about 400.

Butler.

BUTLER, CHARLES, a native of Wycomb, in the county of Bucks, and a master of arts in Magdalen College, Oxford, who published a book entitled "The Principles of Music in singing and setting; with the twofold use thereof, ecclesiastical and civil." 4to, London, 1636. The author of this book was a person of singular learning and ingenuity, which he manifested in sundry other works enumerated by Wood in the *Athena Oxonienses*. Among these is an English Grammar, published in 1633, in which he proposes a scheme of regular orthography, and makes use of characters, some borrowed from the Saxon, and others of his own invention, which it is impossible to represent by means of ordinary types; and of this imagined improvement he appears to have been so fond, that all his tracts are printed in the same manner as his grammar; the consequence of which has been an almost general disgust at every thing he has written. His treatise on the Principles of Music is, however, very learned, curious, and entertaining book; and, by the help of the advertisement from the printer to the reader, prefixed to it, explaining the powers of the several characters made use of by him, may be read to great advantage, and may also be considered as a judicious supplement to Morley's introduction.

BUTLER, Samuel, a celebrated poet, was the son of a respectable Worcestershire farmer, and was born in 1612. He passed some time at Cambridge, but was never matriculated in that university. Returning to his native country, he lived some years as clerk to a justice of peace, and found sufficient time to apply himself to history, poetry, and painting. Being recommended to Elizabeth, countess of Kent, he enjoyed in her house not only the use of all kinds of books, but the conversation of the illustrious Selden, who often employed Butler to write letters, and translate for him. He lived also some time with Sir Samuel Luke, a gentleman of an ancient family in Bedfordshire, and a famous commander under Oliver Cromwell; and he is supposed at this time to have written, or at least to have planned, his celebrated *Hudibras*, and under that character to have ridiculed the knight. The poem itself furnishes this key in the first canto, where Hudibras says

'Tis sung, there is a valiant Mameluke
In foreign land yec'd — — —
To whom we oft have been compar'd
For person, parts, address, and beard.

After the Restoration, Mr Butler was appointed secretary to the Earl of Carbury, lord president of Wales, who appointed him steward of Ludlow Castle when the court was revived there. No one proved more generous friend to him than the Earl of Dorset and Middlesex, to whom it was owing that the court relished his *Hudibras*. He had promises of a good place from the Earl of Clarendon, but they were never accomplished; though the king was so much pleased with the poem as often to quote it pleasantly in conversation. It is indeed said that Charles ordered him the sum of £3000; but the sum being expressed in figures, somebody through whose hands the order passed reduced it, by cutting off a cypher, to £300, and though it passed the offices without fees, it proved not sufficient to pay what he then owed; so that Butler was not a shilling the better for the king's bounty. He died in 1680; and, though he met with many disappointments, he was never reduced to any thing like want, nor did he die in debt. Mr Granger observes, that Butler "stands without a rival in burlesque poetry. His *Hudibras*," he adds, "is in its kind almost as great an effort of genius as the *Paradise Lost* itself. It abounds with uncommon learning, new rhymes, and original thoughts. Its images are truly and naturally ridiculous. There are many strokes

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of temporary satire, and some characters and allusions which cannot be discovered at this distance of time."

BUTLER, Joseph, Bishop of Durham, a prelate distinguished by his piety and learning, as well as by the depth and originality of his metaphysical and ethical views, was the youngest son of Mr Thomas Butler, a respectable shopkeeper at Wantage, in Berkshire, where he was born in the year 1692. His father, who was a Presbyterian, observing that he had a strong inclination to learning, sent him to a grammar-school where he had been placed, to an academy in Gloucestershire, in order to qualify him for a dissenting minister; and while there he wrote some remarks on Dr Clarke's first sermon at Boyle's lecture. Afterwards, resolving to conform to the established church, he studied at Oriel College, where he contracted an intimate friendship with Mr Edward Talbot, son of the Bishop of Durham, and brother to the lord chancellor, who laid the foundation of his subsequent advancement. Soon after his admission into the university he took orders, and in 1718 he was appointed preacher at the Rolls Chapel. He held this situation for about eight years, when he published a volume of sermons delivered in that chapel, which elevated him to great reputation as a profound and original thinker. The Bishop of Durham bestowed upon him the rectory of Haughton, and afterwards that of Stanhope, where he resided a considerable time, entirely devoted to the duties of his pastoral functions. Through the recommendation of his friend and fellow-student Secker, afterwards Archbishop of Canterbury, he was in 1733 nominated chaplain to the Lord Chancellor Talbot; and a prebend in the church of Rochester followed this appointment. He now took the degree of LL.D., and in 1736 was appointed clerk of the closet to the queen, whom he attended every day by her majesty's special command, from seven till nine in the evening. In the same year he published his celebrated work *The Analogy of Religion, Natural and Revealed, to the Constitution and Course of Nature*, which is allowed to be the most original and profound work in any language on the philosophy of religion, and has accordingly placed the author in the first rank of deep and comprehensive thinkers. In 1738 Dr Butler was promoted to the bishopric of Bristol, on the recommendation of Queen Caroline, who had a philosophical taste, and highly esteemed this distinguished philosopher. Two years afterwards he was made Dean of St Paul's, when he resigned the living of Stanhope. In the year 1746 he was appointed clerk of the closet to the king, and in 1750 he obtained his highest preferment, the bishopric of Durham. This rich benefice he, however, enjoyed but a short time; for he died at Bath on the 16th of June 1752. His corpse was interred in the cathedral at Bristol, where there is a monument, with an inscription, erected to his memory. Dr Butler died a bachelor. His profound and comprehensive mind appears sufficiently in his *Sermons* at the Rolls Chapel, and in his celebrated work on the *Analogy of Religion*. An account of his character as a philosopher has been drawn with great ability and discrimination by Sir James Mackintosh, in his Dissertation on the Progress of Ethical Philosophy, prefixed to this work. See vol. i. p. 343.

BUTLER, the name anciently given to an officer in the court of France, being the same as the grand échanson or great cupbearer of later times.

BUTLER, in the common acceptance of the word, is an officer in the houses of princes and great men, whose principal business is to look after the wine, plate, and other similar articles.

BUTT is used for a measure of wine, containing two hogshheads, or 126 gallons, and is otherwise called *pipe*. A butt of currants is from 1500 to 2200 pounds weight.

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BUTTS, or *Butt-ends*, in the sea language, are the fore ends of all planks under water, as they rise, and are joined one end to another. *Butt-ends* in large ships are most carefully bolted; for if any one of them were to spring or give way, the leak would be very dangerous and difficult to stop.

BUTTS, the place where archers meet, with their bows and arrows, to shoot at a mark, which is called shooting at the *butts*.

BUTTER, a fat, unctuous substance, prepared from milk by beating or churning. It was late ere the Greeks appear to have had any notion of butter; their poets make no mention of it, and yet speak frequently of milk and cheese. The Romans used butter as a medicine, never as food. According to Beckman, the invention of butter belongs neither to the Greeks nor to the Romans. The former, he thinks, derived their knowledge of butter from the Scythians, the Thracians, and Phrygians; and the latter from the people of Germany. The ancient Christians of Egypt burnt butter in their lamps instead of oil; and in the Roman churches it was anciently allowed, during Christmas time, to burn butter instead of oil, on account of the great consumption of the latter at that season.

BUTTERFLY. See *ENTOMOLOGICAL INDEX*.

BUTTERIN, in the manège, an instrument of steel, fitted to a wooden handle, wherewith to pare the foot or cut off the hoof of a horse.

BUTTOCK of a *Ship*, is that part which forms her breadth right astern, from the tack upwards; and a ship is said to have a broad or a narrow buttock, according as she is built broad or narrow at the transom.

BUTTSTED, a city, the chief of the bailiwick of the same name, containing 11,200 inhabitants, in the duchy of Saxe-Weimar. It stands on the river Lossa, and contains 1921 inhabitants, engaged in woollen manufactures.

BUTTON, an article in dress, the form and use of which are too well known to need description.

Metal Buttons. The metal with which the moulds are intended to be covered is first cast into small ingots, and then flattened into thin plates or leaves, of the thickness intended, at the flattening mill; after which it is cut into small round pieces proportional to the size of the mould they are intended to cover, by means of proper punches, on a block of wood covered with a thick plate of lead. Each piece of metal thus cut out of the plate is reduced into the form of a button by beating it successively in several cavities, or concave moulds, of a spherical form, with a convex punchcon of iron, always beginning with the shallowest cavity of the mould, and proceeding to the deeper, till the plate has acquired the intended form; and the better to manage so thin a plate, ten, twelve, and sometimes even twenty-four, are formed to the cavities, or concave moulds, at once; often heating the metal during the operation, to make it more ductile. This plate is generally called by workmen the *cap of the button*.

The form being thus given to the plates or caps, the intended impression is struck on the convex side, by means of a similar iron punchcon, in a kind of mould engraved *en creux*, either by the hammer or the press used in coining. The cavity or mould in which the impression is to be made is of a diameter and depth suitable to the sort of button intended to be struck in it; each kind requiring a particular mould. Between the punchcon and the plate is placed a thin piece of lead, called by workmen a *bob*, which greatly contributes to take off all the strokes of the engraving; the lead, by reason of its softness, easily giving way to the parts which have relief, and as easily insinuating itself into the traces or indentures.

The plate thus prepared makes the cap or shell of the button. The lower part is formed of another plate, in the

same manner, but much flatter, and without any impression. To the last or under plate is soldered a small eye, made of wire, by which the button is to be fastened.

The two plates being thus finished, they are soldered together with soft solder, and then turned in a lathe. Generally indeed they use a wooden mould instead of the under plate; and in order to fasten it, they pass a thread or gut across through the middle of the mould, and fill the cavity between the mould and the cap with cement, in order to render the button firm and solid; for the cement entering all the cavities formed by the relief of the other side, sustains it, prevents its flattening, and preserves its bosse or design.

BUTTON'S BAY, the name of the northern part of Hudson's Bay, in North America, by which Sir Thomas Button attempted to find out a north-west passage to the East Indies. It lies between long. 80° and 100° west, and between lat. 60° and 66° north.

BUTTOOL, a small district of Hindustan, in the northern extremity of the province of Oude, ceded to the British by the treaty concluded in 1801, with the nabob of Oude.

On the north it is separated by hills and forests from the territories of the Goorkhah rajah of Nepal.

BUTTRESS, a kind of abutment built archwise, or a mass of stone or brick, serving to prop or support the sides of a building or wall on the outside, where it is either very high, or has any considerable load to sustain on the other side, as a bank of earth, or the like. Buttresses are used against the angles of steeples and other buildings of stone, on the outside and along the walls of such buildings as have great and heavy roofs, which would be subject to thrust out the walls, unless very thick, if no buttresses were placed against them. They are also placed for a support and abutment against the feet of some arches that are turned across great halls in old palaces, abbies, and the like.

BUTZOW, a city in the grand duchy of Mecklenburg Schwerin. It is situated near a lake on the river Warnow, and is the seat of a provincial judicature. The inhabitants amount to 2964, who are employed mostly in linen manufactures.

BUNTEHUDE, a small city in the province of Bremen, and kingdom of Hanover. It is situated on the river Este, is walled, and contains about 1700 inhabitants, who find employment in making soap, leather, snuff, hosiery, and some baize.

BUXAR, a town of Hindustan, in the province of Bahar, district of Shahabad, situated on the south bank of the Ganges. The fort, which, though of small size, commands the Ganges, is now dismantled. At this place every boat navigating the river, as well as every land traveller, is obliged to stop and produce a pass; and the police is very strict. This place is distinguished by a celebrated victory gained here in 1764 by the British forces under Major, afterwards Sir Hector Munro, over the united armies of Sujah ud Dowlah and Cossim Ali Khan. Travelling distance from Benares seventy miles; from Calcutta by Moorshedabad 485, and by Birboom 408 miles. Long. 83. 58. E. Lat. 25. 35. N.

BUXTON, JEDEDIAH, a prodigy of skill in numbers. His father, William Buxton, was schoolmaster of the same parish where he was born in 1704; yet Jedediah's education was so much neglected, that he was never taught to write; and with respect to any other knowledge but that of numbers, he seemed always as ignorant as a boy of ten years of age. How he came first to know the relative proportions of numbers, and their progressive denominations, he did not remember: but to this he applied the whole force of his mind, and upon this his attention was constantly fixed; so that he frequently took no cognizance of external objects, and when he did, it was only with reference

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Buxton. to their numbers. If any space of time was mentioned, he would soon afterwards say it was so many minutes; and if any distance of way, he would assign the number of hair-breads, without any question being asked, or any calculation expected, by the company. When he once understood a question, he began to work with amazing facility, after his own method, without the use of pen, pencil, or chalk, or even understanding the common rules of arithmetic as taught in the schools. He would stride over a piece of land or a field, and tell you the contents of it almost as exactly as if you had measured it by the chain. In this manner he measured the whole lordship of Elnton, consisting of some thousand acres, belonging to Sir John Rhodes, and brought him the contents, not only in acres, roods, and perches, but even in square inches. After this, for his own amusement, he reduced them into square hair-breads, computing forty-eight to each side of the inch. His memory was so great, that while resolving a question, he could leave off, and resume the operation again, where he had left off, the next morning, or at the distance of a week, a month, or several months, and proceed regularly till it was completed. His memory would doubtless have been equally retentive with respect to other objects, if he had attended to them with equal diligence; but his perpetual application to figures prevented the smallest acquisition of any other knowledge. He was sometimes asked, on his return from church, whether he remembered the text, or any part of the sermon; but it never appeared that he had brought away one sentence, his mind, upon a closer examination, being found to have been busied, even during divine service, in his favourite operation, either dividing some time, or some space, into the smallest known parts, or resolving some question that had been given him as a test of his abilities. In the year 1754 he came to London, where he was introduced to the Royal Society, who, in order to prove his abilities, asked him several questions in arithmetic; and he gave them such satisfaction, that they dismissed him with a handsome gratuity. In this visit to the metropolis, the only object of his curiosity, except figures, was his desire to see the king and royal family; but they being just removed to Kensington, Jedediah was disappointed. During his residence in London, he was taken to see King Richard III. performed at Drury-lane theatre; and it was expected, either that the novelty and the splendour of the show would have fixed him in astonishment, and kept his imagination in a continual hurry; or that his passions would, in some degree, have been touched by the power of action, even if he had not perfectly understood the dialogue. But Jedediah's mind was employed in the theatre just as it was employed in every other place. During the dance, he fixed his attention upon the number of steps; after a fine piece of music, he declared that the innumerable sounds produced by the instruments had perplexed him beyond measure; and he attended even to Mr Garrick, only to count the words that he uttered, in which he said he perfectly succeeded. Jedediah returned to the place of his birth, where, if his enjoyments were few, his wishes did not seem to exceed them.

Buxton, a town in the hundred of High Peake, in the county of Derby, 160 miles from London. It is in a valley, surrounded by a barren, hilly district. Its medicinal waters have great celebrity, and, with the excellent accommodation at the hotels and lodging-house, and the salubrity of the air, attract a great number of visitors in the summer months. One of the most beautiful objects of Buxton is a range of buildings called the Crescent, constructed by the late Duke of Devonshire, and containing hotels, shops, and libraries. The inhabitants amounted in 1801 to 760, in 1811 to 934, in 1821 to 1036, and in 1831 to 1211.

Buxtorf, John, a learned professor of Hebrew at Basel, who, in the seventeenth century, acquired the highest reputation for his knowledge of the Hebrew and Chaldee languages. He died of the plague at Basel in 1629, aged sixty-five. His principal works are, 1. A small but excellent Hebrew Grammar, the best edition of which is that of Leyden in 1701, revised by Leusden; 2. A treasure of the Hebrew Grammar; 3. A Hebrew Concordance, and several Hebrew Lexicons; 4. *Institutio epistolaria Hebraica*; 5. *De Abbrevisatura Hebraeorum*, &c.

Buxton, John, the son of the former, and a learned professor of the oriental languages at Basel, distinguished himself, like his father, by his knowledge of the Hebrew language, and his rabbinical learning. He died at Basel in 1664, aged sixty-five years. His principal works are, 1. His translation of the *Mora Necoehim* and the *Corri*; 2. A Chaldee and Syriac Lexicon; 3. An Anti-critique against Cappel; 4. A treatise on the Hebrew Points and Accents, against the same Cappel.

BUYING, the act of making a purchase, or of acquiring the property of a thing for a certain price.

BUYING the Refusal is giving money for the right or liberty of purchasing a thing at a fixed price in a certain time to come, and is chiefly used in dealing for shares in stock. This is sometimes also called by a cant name, *buying the bear*.

BUZZING the Small Pox, is an appellation given to a method of procuring that disease by an operation similar to inoculation. It was performed either by rubbing some of the *pox* taken out of a pustule of a variculous person on the skin, or by making a puncture in the skin with a pin dipped in such pus.

BUZOT, a town of the province of Valencia, in Spain, about ten miles from Alicante, in a most romantic situation. It is celebrated for its warm baths, and for the kermes collected from the *gurruc coccefera*.

BUZZARD. See ORNITHOLOGY, Index.

BYNG, GEORGE, Lord Viscount Torrington, was the son of John Byng, Esq. and was born in 1663. At the age of fifteen he went to sea as a volunteer with the king's warrant. His early engagement in this course of life gave him little opportunity of acquiring learning or cultivating the polite arts; but by his abilities and activity as a naval commander, he furnished abundant matter for the pens of others. After being several times advanced, he was in 1702 raised to the command of the *Nassau*, a third rate, and was at the taking and burning of the French fleet at Vigo; and the next year he was made rear-admiral of the red. In 1704 he served in the grand fleet sent to the Mediterranean under Sir Cloudesley Shovel as rear-admiral of the red; and it was he who commanded the squadron which attacked, cannonaded, and reduced Gibraltar. He was in the battle of Malaga, which followed soon afterwards; and for his behaviour in that action Queen Anne conferred on him the honour of knighthood. In 1705, in about two months time, he took twelve of the enemy's largest privateers, with the *Thetis*, a French frigate of forty-four guns; and also several merchant ships, most of them richly laden. The number of men taken on board was two thousand and seventy, and of guns three hundred and thirty-four. In 1718 he was made admiral and commander-in-chief of the fleet, and was sent with a squadron into the Mediterranean for the protection of Italy, according to the obligation England was under by treaty, against the invasion of the Spaniards, who had the year before surprised Sardinia, and had this year landed an army in Sicily. In this expedition he dispatched Captain Walton in the *Canterbury*, with five more ships, in pursuit of six Spanish men-of-war, with galleys, fire-ships, bomb-vessels, and store-ships, which had separated from the main fleet,

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and stood in for the Sicilian shore. The captain's laconic epistle on this occasion, which is dated Canterbury, off Syracuse, 16th August 1718, is worthy of notice, as showing that his talent, like the admiral's, consisted in fighting, not in writing. "Sir,—We have taken and destroyed all the Spanish ships and vessels which were upon the coast, as per margin. I am, &c. G. WALTON." From the account referred to, it appeared that he had taken four Spanish men-of-war, with a bomb-vessel and a ship laden with arms; and burned four, with a fire-ship and bomb-vessel. The king made the admiral a handsome present, and sent him full powers to negotiate with the princes and states of Italy, as there should be occasion. He procured the emperor's troops free access into the fortresses which still held out in Sicily, sailed afterwards to Malta, and brought out the Sicilian galleys, and a ship belonging to the Turkey company. Soon afterwards he received a gracious letter from the Emperor Charles VI. written with his own hand, accompanied with a picture of his imperial majesty, set round with large diamonds, as a mark of the grateful sense the emperor entertained of his services. It was entirely owing to his advice and assistance that the Germans retook the city of Messina in 1719, and destroyed the ships which lay in the basin; an achievement which completed the ruin of the naval power of Spain. The Spaniards being much distressed, offered to quit Sicily; but the admiral declared that the troops should never be suffered to depart from the island till the king of Spain had acceded to the quadruple alliance. And to his conduct it was entirely owing that Sicily was subdued, and his Catholic majesty forced to accept the terms prescribed him by the quadruple alliance. After performing so many signal services, the king received him with the most gracious expressions of favour and satisfaction, and made him rear-admiral of England and treasurer of the navy, one of his most honourable privy-council, Baron Byng of Southill in the county of Bedford, Viscount Torrington in Devonshire, and one of the knights companions of the bath upon the revival of that order. In 1727 George II., on his accession to the crown, placed him at the head of naval affairs, as first lord of the admiralty; in which high station he died on the 15th January 1733, in the seventieth year of his age, and was buried at Southill, in Bedfordshire.

BYNG, *the Honourable George*, the unhappy son of the former, was bred to the sea, and rose to the rank of admiral of the blue. He gave many proofs of courage; but was at last shot, upon a questionable sentence, for neglect of duty in 1757. See BRITAIN.

BYRON, JOHN, an ingenious poet of Manchester, born in 1691. His first poetical essay appeared in the Spectator, No. 603, beginning, "My time, O ye Muses, was happily spent;" which, with two humorous letters on dreams, are to be found in the eighth volume. He was admitted a member of the Royal Society in 1724; and having originally entertained thoughts of practising physic, to which the title of doctor is incident, that was the appellation by which he was always known; but reducing himself to narrow circumstances by a precipitate marriage, he supported himself by teaching a new method of writing shorthand, of his own invention, until an estate devolved to him by the death of an elder brother. He was a man of lively wit; of which, whenever a favourable opportunity tempted him to indulge it, he gave many humorous specimens. He died in 1763; and a collection of his miscellaneous poems was printed at Manchester, in 2 vols. 8vo, 1773.

BYRON, LORD GEORGE GORDON, the only son of Captain Byron, and Catharine, sole child and heiress of George Gordon, Esq. of Gight, in Scotland, was born on the 23d

January 1788, in Holles Street, London. His father, a man of dissolute and extravagant habits, died in 1791, at Valenciennes, leaving his widow, who was then residing at Aberdeen, to support herself and her son on a pittance of £.135 per annum. In 1794 his cousin, the grandson of the fifth Lord Byron, died in Corsica, and he became the presumptive heir to the peerage. The fifth Lord Byron died in 1798, and he succeeded to the title; and in the autumn of that year removed with his mother from Aberdeen to Newstead Abbey, in Nottinghamshire, which since the reign of Henry VIII. had been in the possession of the ancient family of Byron. Lord Byron had received the first rudiments of education at a grammar-school in Aberdeen. He was next sent in 1799 to the school of Dr Glennie at Dulwich, and in 1801 to Harrow, which he quitted in 1805. He is described by the head master of the latter school, the Rev. Dr Drury, as sensitive in disposition, intractable except by gentle means, shy, defectively educated, and ill prepared for a public school; but exhibiting the germs of considerable talent, though it does not appear to have been then foreseen in what mode his talents would display themselves. He excelled in declamation; and oratory, rather than poetry, was thought to be the prevailing bent of his genius. He seems to have been an active and spirited boy, at first unpopular, but finally a favourite; ardent in his school friendships, and jealous of the attachment of those whom he preferred. Among these the most learned were Lords Clare and Delawarr, the Duke of Dorset, Mr Harness, and Mr Wingfield. He was on friendly but less intimate terms with the most distinguished of his school-fellows, the present Sir Robert Peel. In classical scholarship Lord Byron acknowledged himself very inferior to Peel; but he was thought superior to him and to most others in general information. This was indeed extensive to a very unusual degree; and he has left on record an almost incredible list of works, in many various departments of literature, which he had read before the age of fifteen.

In October 1805 he was removed to Trinity College, Cambridge. He slighted the university, neglected its studies, and rebelled against its authority. Meanwhile he had commenced his poetical career, but at first feebly and with faint promise of future excellence. He first attempted poetry as early as 1800, under the inspiration of a boyish attachment to his young cousin, a daughter of Admiral Parker. In November 1806 he caused to be printed by Ridge, a bookseller at Norwich, for private circulation, a small volume of poems, among which one, written at the age of fifteen, is remarkable as containing a presage of his future fame. Some of the poems in this collection were of too licentious a character; and, on the advice of Mr Becker, a gentleman to whom the first copy had been presented, it was with praiseworthy promptitude suppressed, and replaced by a purified edition. In 1807 appeared his first published work, *The Hours of Idleness*; a collection of poems little worthy of his talent, and chiefly remembered through the castigation which it received from the *Edinburgh Review*. To this critique, which galled but did not depress him, we owe the first spirited outbreak of his talent, the satire entitled *English Bards and Scotch Reviewers*, which was published in March 1809. The length of this poem was increased, and many changes made in it, during its progress through the press. Censures of individuals were turned into praises, and praises into censures, with all the fickleness and precipitance of his age and character. It contained many harsh judgments, of which he afterwards repented; and able and vigorous as the satire was, and creditable to his talents, the time soon arrived when he was loudly anxious to suppress it. A few days previous to the publication of this

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Byron. satire, on the 17th of March 1809, he took his seat in the House of Lords. He seems on that occasion to have keenly felt the loneliness of his position. He was almost unknown to society at large; there was no peer to introduce him; and his mortification led him to receive with ungracious coldness the welcome of the lord chancellor. His unfriended situation inspired him with disgust, and chilled his incipient longing for parliamentary distinction; and even a few days after taking his seat he retired to Newstead Abbey, and engaged with his friend Mr (now Sir J. C.) Hobhouse to travel together on the Continent. About the end of June the friends sailed together from Falmouth to Lisbon; travelled through part of Portugal and the south of Spain to Gibraltar; sailed thence to Malta and afterwards to Albania, in which country they landed on the 29th of September. From this time till the middle of the spring 1811, Lord Byron was engaged in visiting many parts of Greece, Turkey, and Asia Minor; staying long at Athens, Constantinople, and Smyrna. He touched again, on his return, at Malta, quitted it on the 2d of June, and early in July, after two years absence, landed in England. His affairs during this period had fallen into disorder, and it became advisable to sell either Rochdale or Newstead. The latter he was then most anxious to retain, and professed that it was his "only tie" to England, "and if he parted with that, he should remain abroad." In a letter to a friend, written during his homeward voyage, he thus expresses his melancholy sense of his condition: "Embarrassed in my private affairs, indifferent to public,—solitary without the wish to be social,—with a body a little enfeebled by a succession of fevers, but a spirit I trust yet unbroken,—I am returning home without a hope, and almost without a desire." This gloom was still deepened by numerous afflictions. His mother died on the 1st of August, without his having seen her again since his return to England; and he was deprived by death of five other relatives and friends between that and the end of August. "In the short space of one month," he says, "I have lost her who gave me being, and most of those who made that being tolerable." Amongst the latter were Wingfield, and Matthews, the brother of the author of the *Diary of an Invalid*. At this period of distress he was approaching unsuspectingly a remarkable epoch of his fame. He had composed while abroad two poems very different in character, and which he regarded with strangely misplaced feelings; the one called *Hints from Horace*, a weak imitation of his former satire; the other the first two cantos of *Childe Harold*. The former he intended to publish immediately; but the latter he thought of so disparagingly (owing probably to the injudicious comments of the single friend who had hitherto seen it), that it might probably have never become known to the public but for the wise advice of Mr Dallas. In compliance with the request of that gentleman, he withheld the *Hints from Horace*, which would have been injurious rather than beneficial to his fame, and allowed *Childe Harold* to be offered for publication. He received from his publisher, Mr Murray, £600 for the copyright, which he gave to Mr Dallas. The publication was long delayed; for though placed in the publisher's hands in August, it did not appear till the beginning of March 1812. It, however, received during this interval considerable improvements; and the fears of the author were allayed by the approbation of Mr Gifford, the translator of Juvenal, and then editor of the *Quarterly Review*. The success of the poem exceeded even the anticipation of this able critic; and Lord Byron emerged at once from a state of loneliness and neglect, unusual for one in his sphere of life, to be the magnet and idol of society. As he tersely says in his memoranda, "I awoke one morn-

ing and found myself famous." A few days before the publication of *Childe Harold*, he attracted attention, but in a minor degree, by his first speech in the House of Lords on the subject of the house-breaking bill. He opposed it, and with ability; and his first oratorical effort was much commended by Sheridan, Sir F. Burdett, and Lords Grenville and Holland. He had prepared himself, by having committed the whole of this speech to writing. It was well received, and he was extremely gratified by its success. He might perhaps have been incited by the praises it received to seek political distinction; but the greater success which attended his poem turned his ambitious feelings into a different channel. He nevertheless spoke again about six weeks afterwards, on a motion of Lord Donoughmore, in favour of the claims of the Roman Catholics, but less successfully than before. Less clearness was displayed in the matter of his speech, and his delivery was considered as theatrical. In the autumn of this year he wrote an address at the request of the Drury-lane Committee, to be spoken at the re-opening of the theatre; and not long afterwards he became a member of that committee. The same autumn he engaged to sell Newstead for £140,000, of which £60,000 was to remain in mortgage on the estate for three years; but this purchase was never completed. In May 1813 appeared his *Giaour*, a wildly poetical fragment, of which the story was founded on an event that had occurred at Athens while he was there, and in which he was personally concerned. It was written rapidly, and with such additions during the course of printing as to be more than trebled in length, and swelled from about four hundred lines to upwards of fourteen hundred. On the 2d of June in this year he spoke for the last time in the House of Lords, on presenting a petition from Major Cartwright. He had now apparently ceased to regard parliamentary distinction as a primary object of ambition.

In his journal of November 1813 is the following entry: "I have declined presenting the debtors' petition, being sick of parliamentary mummeries. I have spoken thrice, but I doubt my ever becoming an orator; my first was liked, my second and third, I don't know whether they succeeded or not; I have never set to it *con amore*." In November he had finished the *Bride of Abydos* (written in a week), and it was published the following month. The *Corair*, a poem of still higher merit and popularity, appeared in less than three months afterwards; it was written in the astonishingly short space of ten days. During the year 1813 he appears to have first entertained a serious intention of marriage, and became a suitor to Miss Millbanke, only daughter and heiress of Sir Ralph Milbanke. His first proposal was rejected; but the parties continued on the footing of friendship, and maintained a correspondence, of which, and of that lady, he thus speaks, in his private journal: "Yesterday a very pretty letter from Annabella, which I answered. What an odd situation and friendship is ours! without one spark of love on either side, and produced by circumstances which in general lead to coldness on one side, and aversion on the other. She is a very superior woman, and very little spoiled, which is strange in an heiress—a girl of twenty—a peeress that is to be in her own right—an only child, and a *soriente*, who has always had her own way. She is a poetess, a mathematician, a metaphysician, and yet withal very kind, generous, and gentle, with very little pretension: any other head would be turned with half her acquisitions and a tenth of her advantages." In September 1814 he made a second proposal by letter, which was accepted; and on the 2d of January 1815 he was married to Miss Millbanke, at Seaham, the country seat of her father. The only in-

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sue of this marriage, Augusta Ada, was born on the 10th of December of that year. We cannot lift the veil of their domestic life; we can only state the unfortunate results. On the 15th of January 1816, Lady Byron left London for Kirkby Mallory, the residence of her parents, whither Lord Byron was to follow her. She had, with the concurrence of some of Lord Byron's relatives, previously consulted Dr Baillie respecting the supposed insanity of her husband, and by the advice of that gentleman had written to him in a kind and soothing tone. Lady Byron's impressions of the insanity of Lord Byron were soon removed, but were followed by a resolution on her part to obtain a separation. Conformably with this resolution, Sir Ralph Milbank wrote to Lord Byron on the 2d of February, proposing such a measure. This proposal Lord Byron at first rejected, but afterwards consented to sign a deed to that effect. Dr Lushington, the legal adviser of Lady Byron, has stated in a published letter, that he "considered reconciliation impossible." Of the circumstances which led to such an event, and on which Dr Lushington founded such an opinion, the public is at present uninformed. We are therefore, in absence of full and satisfactory evidence, bound to suspend our judgment on the merits of this melancholy case, and dismiss it with the foregoing statement of the leading facts. In the course of the spring he published the *Siege of Corinth and Parisina*. He also wrote two copies of verses, which appeared in the public papers, *Fare thee well*, and *A Sketch from Private Life*; of which his separation from his wife, and the instrumentality which he imputes to an humble individual in conducting to that separation, were the themes. This private circumstance had become the subject of general comment. The majority of those who filled the circles in which Lord Byron had lately lived declared against him, and society withdrew its countenance. Lord Byron, deeply stung by its verdict, hastily resolved to leave the country; and on the 25th of April 1816 he quitted England for the last time. His course was through Flinders and along the Rhine to Switzerland, where, at a villa called Deodati, in the neighbourhood of Geneva, he resided during the summer. From thence he made two excursions, one in the central part of Switzerland, in company with Mr Hobhouse, and another shorter excursion with a celebrated poetical compeer Mr Shelley, with whom he became acquainted soon after his arrival at Geneva. He remained in Switzerland till October, during which time he had composed some of his most powerful works; the third canto of *Childe Harold*, the *Prisoner of Chillon*, *Darkness*, the *Dream*, part of *Manfred*, and a few minor poems. In October he quitted Switzerland in company with Mr Hobhouse, and proceeded by Milan and Verona to Venice. Here he resided from the middle of November 1816 to the middle of April 1817. During this period his principal literary occupation was the completion of *Manfred*, of which he re-wrote the third act. He visited Rome for about a month in the spring, and then returned to Venice, at which city, or at La Mira, in its immediate vicinity, he resided almost uninterruptedly from this time till 1816. He wrote during this period the *Lament of Tasso*, *Deppo*, the fourth canto of *Childe Harold*, *Marino Faliero*, the *Foscari*, *Mazeppa*, and part of *Don Juan*. The licentious character of his life while at Venice corresponded but too well with the tone of that production. His able biographer and friend Mr Moore, after adverting to his liaison with a married Italian woman, says: "Highly censurable in point of morality and decorum as was his course of life while under the roof of Madame * * it was (with pain I am forced to confess) venial in comparison with the strange headlong career of license to which, when weaned from that connection, he so unre-

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strainedly, and, it may be added, defyingly, abandoned himself." This course of unbridled libertinism received its first check from the growth of attachment which, as it was still unhallowed, not even the good which it may seem to have done in the substitution of a purer sentiment, will enable us to regard with satisfaction. In April 1819 he first became acquainted with the Countess Guiccioli, the young and newly-married wife of an elderly Italian nobleman. A mutual attachment, which appears to have commenced on the part of the lady, soon arose between Lord Byron and the Countess Guiccioli. Their passion was augmented by occasional separation, the interest excited by her severe illness during one of their forced absences, and the imprudent complaisance of her husband in leaving them much in the society of each other. They long lived together in a half-permitted state of intimacy, the lady appearing with the consent of her husband to share his protection with that of Lord Byron. But this equivocal position soon terminated in the separation of the Count and Countess Guiccioli. The lady then went to reside with her father; and under his sanction, during the next three or four years, she and Lord Byron enjoyed the intimate possession of each other's society. In December 1819 Lord Byron quitted Venice for Ravenna, where he remained till the end of October 1821. During this period he wrote part of *Don Juan*, the *Prophecy of Dante*, *Sardanapalus*, a translation of the first canto of *Pulei's Morgante Maggiore*, and the mysteries, *Heaven and Earth*, and *Cain*; the latter of which may be justly considered as among the most faulty in principle, and powerful in execution, of the productions of his genius. He also wrote a letter on Mr Bowles's strictures on Pope, dated 7th February 1821, in which he defends the poet against his commentator; and an answer to an article in Blackwood's Magazine, entitled "Remarks on Don Juan," but this was never published.

During this period an insurrectionary spirit broke out in Italy; the Carbonari appeared; and secret societies began to be formed. The brother of the Countess Guiccioli, Count Pietro Gamba, espoused the cause of the insurgents, and through his means Lord Byron became implicated in the proceedings of that party. In his private journal of 16th February 1821, Lord Byron complains of the conduct of that gentleman and others, in sending to his house, without apprising him, arms with which he had a short time previously furnished them at their request, and thereby endangering his safety, and exposing him to the vengeance of the government, which had lately issued a severe ordinance against all persons having arms concealed. In July 1821, the father and brother of Madame Guiccioli were ordered to quit Ravenna, and repaired with that lady, first to Florence, and afterwards to Pisa, where they were joined in October by Lord Byron. He remained at Pisa till September 1822, Madame Guiccioli still living with him under the sanction of her father, who, in consequence of one of the conditions of her separation from her husband, was always to reside with her under the same roof. While here he lost his illegitimate daughter Allegra, and his friend Shelley, who was drowned in July 1822 in the Bay of Spezia. The body was burned, and Lord Byron assisted at this singular rite. His principal associates during this time had been the Gambas, Shelley, Captain Medwyn, and Mr Trelawney. He had also become associated with the brothers John and Leigh Hunt, in a periodical paper called the *Edinburgh*; a transaction certainly disinterested, inasmuch as it does not appear that he expected either profit or fame to accrue to himself from the undertaking; and he seems to have allowed his name to be connected with it from a desire to serve the Hunts, of whom Leigh Hunt, with his wife and family,

Byron. received an asylum in his house. An affray with a serjeant-major at Pina rendered his residence in that city less agreeable; and his removal from it was at length determined by an order from the Tuscan government to the Gamba to quit the territory. Accordingly, in September 1822, he removed with them to Genoa. While at Pina he had written, besides his contributions to the *Liberator*, *Werner*, the *Deformed Transformed*, and the remainder of *Don Juan*.

In April 1823 he commenced a correspondence with the Greek committee, through Messrs Blaquiere and Bowring, and began to interest himself warmly in the cause of the Greeks. In May he decided to go to Greece; and in July he sailed from Genoa in an English brig, taking with him Count Gamba, Mr Trelawney, Dr Burns, an Italian physician, and eight domestics; five horses, arms, ammunition, and medicine. The money which he had raised for this expedition was 50,000 crowns; 10,000 in specie, and the rest in bills of exchange. In August he arrived at Argostoli, the chief port of Cephalonia, in which island he established his residence till the end of December. His first feelings of exaggerated enthusiasm appear to have been soon cooled. Even as early as October he uses, in letters to Madame Guiccioli, such expressions as, "I was a fool to come here;" and, "of the Greeks I can't say much good hitherto; and I do not like to speak ill of them, though they be of one another." During the latter part of this year we find him endeavouring to compose the dissensions of the Greeks among themselves, and assisting them with a loan of £4000. About the end of December 1823 he sailed from Argostoli in a Greek mistic, and after narrowly escaping capture by a Turkish frigate, landed on the 5th of January 1824 at Missolonghi. His reception here was enthusiastic. The whole population came out to welcome him; salutes were fired; and he was met and conducted into the town by Prince Mavrocordato, and all the troops and dignitaries of the place. But the disorganization which reigned in this town soon depressed his spirits, which had been raised by this reception, and filled his mind with reasonable misgivings of the success of the Greek cause. Nevertheless his resolution did not seem to fail, nor did he relax in his devotion to that cause, and in his efforts to advance it. About the end of January 1824 he received his commission from the Greek government as commander of the expedition against Lepanto, with full powers both civil and military. He was to be assisted by a military council, with Bozzari at its head. Great difficulties attended the arrangement of this expedition, arising principally from the dissensions and jealousies of the native leaders, and the mutinous spirit of the Suliote troops; with which latter, on the 14th of February, Lord Byron came to a rupture, in consequence of their demand, that about a third part of their number should be raised from common soldiers to the rank of officers. Lord Byron was firm, and they submitted on the following day. Difficulties in the civil department harassed him at the same time, aggravated by a difference of opinion between himself and Colonel Stanhope, on the subject of a free press, which the latter was anxious to introduce, and for which, on the other hand, Lord Byron considered that Greece was not yet ripe. On the 15th of February, the day of the professed submission of the Suliotes, he was seized with a convulsive fit, and for many days was seriously ill. While he was on a sick bed, the mutinous Suliotes burst into his room, demanding what they called their rights; and though his firmness then controlled them, it soon afterwards became necessary to get rid of these lawless soldiers, by the bribe of a month's pay in advance,—and with their dismissal vanished the hopes of the expedition against Lepanto. After this he

turned his mind chiefly to the fortification of Missolonghi, the formation of a brigade, and the composition of the differences among the Greek chieftains. Since his attack in February he had never been entirely well. Early in April he caught a severe cold through exposure to rain. His fever increased, and in consequence of his prejudice against bleeding, that remedy was delayed till it was too late to be effectual. On the 17th (the second day after he had been bled) appearances of inflammation in the brain presented themselves. The following day he became insensible, and about twenty-four hours afterwards, at a quarter past six in the evening of the 19th of April 1824, Lord Byron breathed his last. Public honours were decreed to his memory by the authorities of Greece, where his loss was deeply lamented. The body was conveyed to England, and on the 16th of July was deposited in the family vault, in the parish church of Hucknall, near Newstead, in the county of Notts. By his will, dated 29th July 1815, Lord Byron bequeathed to his half-sister, Mrs Leigh, during her life, and after her death to her children, the monies arising from the sale of all such property, real and personal, as was not settled upon Lady Byron and his issue by her. The executors were Mr Hobhouse, and Mr Hanson, Lord Byron's solicitor.

The personal appearance of Lord Byron was prepossessing. His height was five feet eight and a half inches; his head small; his complexion pale; hair dark brown and curly; forehead high; features regular and good, and somewhat Grecian; eyes light grey, but capable of much expression. He was lame in the right foot, owing, it was said, to an accident at his birth; which circumstance seems always to have been to him a source of deep mortification, little warranted by its real importance. It did not prevent him from being active in his habits, and excelling in various manly exercises. He was a very good swimmer; successfully crossed the Hellespont in emulation of Leander; swam across the Tagus, a still greater feat; and, greatest of all, at Venice in 1818, from Lido to the opposite end of the grand canal, having been four hours and twenty minutes in the water without touching ground. In his younger days he was fond of sparring; and pistol-shooting, in which he excelled, was his favourite diversion while in Italy. In riding, for which he professed fondness, he did not equally excel. He was nervous both on horseback and in a carriage, though his conduct in Greece, and at other times, proved his unquestionable courage on great occasions. He had always a fondness for animals, and seemed to have preferred those which were of a ferocious kind. A bear, a wolf, and sundry bull-dogs, were at various times among his pets. The habits of his youth, after the period of boyhood, were not literary and intellectual; nor were his amusements of a refined or poetical character. He was always shy, and fond of solitude; but when in society, lively and animated, gentle, playful, and attractive in manner; and he possessed the power of quickly conciliating the friendship of those with whom he associated. He was very susceptible of attachment to women. The objects of his strongest passions appear to have been Miss Chaworth, afterwards Mrs Musters, and the Countess Guiccioli. His amours were numerous, and there was in his character a too evident proneness to libertinism. His constitution does not seem ever to have been strong, and his health was probably impaired by his modes of life. He was abstemious in eating, sometimes touching neither meat nor fish. Sometimes also he abstained entirely from wine or spirits, which at other times he drank to excess, seldom preserving a wholesome moderation and regularity of system. His temper was irascible, yet placable. He was quickly alive to tender and generous emotions, and performed many acts of disinterested liberality, even to

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wards those whom he could not esteem, and in spite of parsimonious feelings, which latterly gained hold upon him. He was a man of a morbid acuteness of feeling, arising partly from original temperament, and partly from circumstances and habits. He had been ill educated; he had been severely tried; his early attachments, and his first literary efforts, had equally been unfortunate; he had encountered the extremes of neglect and admiration; pecuniary distresses, domestic afflictions, and the unerring tendency of dissipated habits, had all conspired to aggravate the waywardness of his excitable disposition. It is evident that, in spite of his assumed indifference, he was always keenly alive to the applause and censure of the world; and its capricious treatment of him more than ordinarily encouraged that vanity and egotism which were conspicuous traits of his character.

The religious opinions of Lord Byron appear, by his own account of them, to have been "unfixed;" but he expressly disclaimed being one of those infidels who deny the Scriptures, and wish to remain "in unbelief." In politics he was liberal, but his opinions were most influenced by his feelings; and, though professedly a lover of free institutions, he could not withhold his admiration even from tyranny when his imagination was wrought upon by its grandeur. He would not view Napoleon as the enslaver of France; he viewed him only as the most extraordinary being of his age, and he sincerely deplored his fall.

Lord Byron's prose compositions were so inconsiderable that they may almost be overlooked in the view of his literary character. His letters nevertheless must not pass wholly unnoticed. Careless as they are, and hastily written, they are among the most lively, spirited, and pointed specimens of epistolary writing in our language, and would alone suffice to indicate the possession of superior talent. The critical theories of Lord Byron were remarkably at variance with his practice. The most brilliant supporter of a new school of poetry, he was the professed admirer of a school that was superseded. The most powerful and original poet of the nineteenth century, he was a timid critic of the eighteenth. In theory he preferred polish to originality or vigour. He evidently thought Pope the first of our poets; he defended the unities; praised Shakspeare grudgingly; saw little merit in Spencer; preferred his own *Hints from Horace to his Child Harold's Pilgrimage*; and assigned his eminent contemporaries Coleridge and Wordsworth a place far inferior to that which public opinion has more justly accorded to them.

The poetry of Lord Byron produced an immediate effect unparalleled in our literary annals. Of this influence much may be attributed, not only to the real power of his poetry, but also to the impressive identification of its principal characteristics with that which, whether truly or falsely, the world chose to regard as the character of the author. He seemed to have unbosomed himself to the public, and admitted them to view the full intensity of feelings which had never before been poured forth with such eloquent directness. His poems were as tales of the confessional, portraiture of real passion, not tamely feigned, but fresh and glowing from the breast of the writer. The emotions which he excelled in displaying were those of the most stormy character,—hate, scorn, rage, despair, indomitable pride, and the dark spirit of misanthropy. It was a narrow circle, but in that he stood without a rival.

His descriptive powers were eminently great. His works abound in splendid examples; among which the Venetian night-scene from Lion's balcony, Terni, the Coliseum viewed by moonlight, and the shipwreck in Don Juan, will probably rise foremost in the memories of many readers. In description he was never too minute.

He selected happily, and sketched freely, rapidly, and boldly. He seized the most salient images, and brought them directly and forcibly to the eye at once. There was, however, in his descriptive talent, the same absence of versatility and variety which characterized other departments of his genius. His writings do not reflect nature in all its infinite change of climate, scenery, and season. He portrayed with surpassing truth and force only such objects as were adapted to the sombre colouring of his pencil. The mountain, the cataract, the glacier, the ruin,—objects inspiring awe and melancholy,—seemed more congenial to his poetical disposition than those which led to joy or gratitude.

His genius was not dramatic; vigorously as he portrayed emotions, he was not successful in drawing characters; he was not master of variety; all his most prominent personages are strictly resolvable into one. There were diversities, but they were diversities of age, clime, and circumstance, not of character. They were merely such as would have appeared in the same individual when placed in different situations. Even the lively and the serious moods belonged alike to that one being; but there was a bitter recklessness in the mirth of his lively personages, which seems only the temporary relaxation of that proud misanthropic gloom that is exhibited in his serious heroes; and each might easily become the other. It may also be objected that many of his personages, that, if tried by the standard of nature, they were essentially false. They were sublime monstrosities—strange combinations of virtue and vice, such as had never really existed. In his representations of corsairs and renegades, he exaggerates the good feelings which may, by a faint possibility, belong to such characters, and suppresses the brutality and faithlessness which would more probably be found in them, and from which it is not possible that they should have been wholly exempt. His plan was highly conducive to poetical effect; but its incorrectness must not be overlooked in an estimate of his delineation of human character. In his tragedies there is much vigour; but their finest passages are either soliloquies or descriptions, and their highest beauties are seldom strictly of a dramatic nature. Many of his dialogues are scarcely more than interrupted soliloquies; many of his arguments such as one mind would hold with itself. In fact, in his characters, there was seldom that degree of variety and contrast which is requisite for dramatic effect. The opposition was rather that of situation than of sentiment; and we feel that the interlocutors, if transposed, might still have uttered the same things.

It is to be deplored that scarcely any moral good is derivable from the splendid poetry of Lord Byron. The tendency of his works is to shake our confidence in virtue, and to diminish our abhorrence of vice,—to palliate crime, and to unsettle our notions of right and wrong. Even many of the virtuous sentiments which occur in his writings are assigned to characters so worthless, or placed in such close juxtaposition with vicious sentiments, as to induce a belief that there exists no real definable boundary; and it may perhaps be said with truth, that it would have been better for the cause of morality, if even those virtuous sentiments had been omitted. Our sympathy is frequently solicited in the behalf of crime. Alp, Conrad, Juan, Parisina, Hugo, Lara, and Manfred, may be cited as examples. They are all interesting and vicious. In the powerful drama of *Cain*, the heroes are Lucifer and the first murderer; and the former is depicted, not like the Satan of Milton, who believes and trembles, but as the compassionate friend of mankind. Resistance to the will of the Creator is represented as dignified and commendable; obedience and faith as mean, slavish, and con-

Byron.

Byron's
Island
Byzan-
tium.

temptible. It is implied that it was unmerciful to have created us such as we are, and that we owe the Supreme Being neither gratitude nor duty. Such sentiments are clearly deducible from this drama. Whether they were those of Lord Byron is not certain; but he must be held accountable for their promulgation.

(v. v.)

BYRON'S *Island*, in the Pacific Ocean, discovered by Commodore Byron in the year 1765. It is about twelve miles in length, and is low, flat, and full of woods, in which the cocoa tree is predominant. It is inhabited by savages. Long. 173. 16. E. Lat. 1. 18. S.

BYSSUS, or BYSSUM, a fine thready matter produced in India, Egypt, and the vicinity of Elis in Achaia, of which the richest apparel was anciently made, especially that worn by the priests, both Jewish and Egyptian. Some interpreters render the Greek *Bombyx*, which occurs both in the Old and New Testament, by *fine linen*. But other versions, as Calvin's, and the Spanish one printed at Venice in 1556, explain the word by *silk*; and yet byssus must have been different from our silk, as appears from a multitude of ancient writers, and particularly from Julius Pollux. M. Simon, who renders the word by fine linen, adds a note to explain it, bearing "that there was a fine kind of linen very dear, which the great lords alone wore in this country as well as in Egypt;" an account which agrees perfectly well with that given by Hesiychius, as well as with the observation of Bochart, that the byssus was a finer kind of linen, which was frequently dyed of a purple colour. Some authors will have the byssus to be the same with our cotton; others take it for the *linum asbestinum*; and a third class conceive it to have been the lock or bunch of silky hair found adhering to the pinna marina, by which the latter fastens itself to neighbouring bodies. Authors usually distinguish two sorts of byssus: that of Elis, and that of Judea, which was the finest. Of this latter the priestly ornaments were made. Bonifertius remarks, that there must have been two sorts of byssus, one finer than ordinary, by reason there are two Hebrew words used in Scripture to denote byssus; one of which is always used in speaking of the habit of the priests, and the other in alluding to that of the Levites.

BYZANTIUM, an ancient city of Thrace, situated on the Bosphorus. It was founded, according to Eusebius, about the thirtieth Olympiad, when Tullus Hostilius reigned in Rome. But, according to Diodorus Siculus, the foundations of this metropolis were laid in the time of the Argonauts, by one Byzas, who then reigned in the neighbouring country, and from whom the city was called *Byzantium*. This Byzas, according to Eustathius, arrived in Thrace a little before the Argonauts came into those seas, and settled there with a colony of Megarenses. But Velleius Paterculus ascribes the founding of Byzantium to the Milesians, while Ammianus Marcellinus attributes it to the inhabitants of Attica. Some ancient medals of Byzantium, however, bear the name and head of Byzas, with the prow of a ship on the obverse. The year after the destruction of Jerusalem by Titus, Byzantium was reduced into the form of a Roman province. In A. D. 193 the city took part with Niger against Severus, and was strongly garrisoned by Niger, as being a place of the utmost importance. But it was soon afterwards invested by Severus; and as he was universally hated on account of his cruelty, the inhabitants defended themselves with the greatest resolution. Having been supplied with a great number of warlike machines, most of them invented and built by Periscus, a native of Nicæa, and the greatest engineer of his age, they for a long time baffled all the attempts of the assailants, killed great numbers of them, crushed such as approached the walls with large stones; and when stones began to fail, they discharged the statues

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of their gods and heroes as missiles against the enemy. But at last they were obliged to submit, through famine, after having been reduced to the necessity of devouring one another. The conqueror put all the magistrates and soldiers to the sword; but he spared the engineer Periscus. Before this siege Byzantium was the greatest, wealthiest, and most populous city of Thrace. It was surrounded by walls of an extraordinary height and breadth, defended by a great number of towers, seven of which were built with such art that the least noise heard in one of them was immediately conveyed to all the rest. Severus, however, no sooner became master of the place, than he commanded it to be laid in ashes. The inhabitants were stripped of all their effects, and publicly sold as slaves, whilst the walls were levelled with the ground. But from the chronicle of Alexandria we learn, that soon after this terrible catastrophe Severus himself caused a great part of the city to be rebuilt, calling it *Antonia*, after his son Caracalla, who assumed the surname of Antoninus. In A. D. 262, the tyrant Gallienus wreaked his fury on the inhabitants of Byzantium. He intended to besiege it, but on his arrival despaired of being able to make himself master of so strong a place. He was, however, admitted next day into the city; and, without any regard to the terms agreed on, he caused the soldiers and all the inhabitants to be put to the sword. Trebellius Pollio says, that not a single person was left alive. What reason there was for such an extraordinary massacre we are nowhere informed. In the wars between the Emperors Licinius and Maximin the city of Byzantium was obliged to submit to the latter, but it was soon afterwards recovered by Licinius. In the year 323, it was taken from Licinius by Constantine the Great, who in 330 enlarged and beautified it, with a design to make it the second, if not the first city in the Roman empire. He began with extending the walls of the ancient city from sea to sea; and whilst some of the workmen were busied in rearing these defences, others were employed in raising within them a great number of stately buildings, amongst which was a palace nowise inferior in extent and magnificence to that of Rome. He built a capital and an amphitheatre, and constructed a circus maximus, several forums, porticoes, and public baths. He divided the whole city into fourteen regions or wards, and granted the inhabitants many privileges and immunities. By these means Byzantium became one of the most flourishing and populous cities of the empire. Vast numbers of people flocked thither from Pontus, Thrace, and Asia, as Constantine, by a law enacted A. D. 330, had decreed that no person who had lands in those countries should be at liberty to dispose of them, or even to leave them to his proper heir at his death, unless such heir had a house in the new city. But however desirous the emperor might be that his city should be filled with people, he did not care that it should be inhabited by any but Christians. He therefore caused the idols to be pulled down, and the temples to be consecrated to the true God. Besides, he built an incredible number of churches, and caused crosses to be erected in all the squares and public places. When most of the buildings were finished, he caused the city to be solemnly dedicated to the Virgin Mary, according to Cedrenus, but according to Eusebius, to the God of Martyrs. At the same time Byzantium was declared equal in rank to Rome; and similar rights, immunities, and privileges were granted to its inhabitants, with those enjoyed by the metropolis. Constantine established a senate and other magistrates, with power and authority equal to those of old Rome; and he took up his residence in the new city, changing its name to CONSTANTINOPLE.

BZOVIUS, ABRAHAM, one of the most celebrated wri-

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C
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Cabal.

ters in the seventeenth century, in as far as respects the number of pieces composed by him. His chief work is the continuation of Baronius's *Annals*. He was a native of Poland, and a Dominican friar. Upon his arrival at Rome he was received with open arms by the Pope, and

had an apartment assigned him in the Vatican. He merited that reception, for he has imitated Baronius to admiration, in his design of making all things conspire to enhance the power and glory of the papal see. He died in 1630, aged seventy.

Caballaria
||
Cabalis.

C.

C, THE third letter, and second consonant, of the alphabet, is pronounced like *k* before the vowels *a*, *o*, and *u*, and like *s* before *e*, *i*, and *y*. C is formed, according to Scaliger, from the *x* of the Greeks, by retrenching the stem or upright line; though others derive it from the *z* of the Hebrews, which has in effect the same form; only, that as the Hebrews read towards the left, and the Latins and other western nations towards the right, each turned the letter their own way. However, the C not being the same as to sound with the Hebrew *caph*, *z*, and it being certain that the Romans did not borrow their letters immediately from the Hebrews or other orientals, but from the Greeks, the derivation from the Greek *x* is upon the whole the more probable. Indeed Montfaucon, in his *Palaeographia*, gives some forms of the Greek *x* which approach very near to that of our C; and Suidas calls the C the Roman *kappa*. Before the first Punic war C held the place which is now occupied by G, as appears from the Duilian Column, where we meet with *acum* for *agnum*, *leionem* for *legionem*, and *efficiunt* for *effugunt*. The second sound of C resembles that of the Greek *z*; and many instances occur of ancient inscriptions, in which *z* has the same form with our C. Grammarians are pretty generally agreed that the Romans pronounced their Q like our C, and their C like our K. Mabillon informs us that Charles the Great was the first who wrote his name with a C; whereas all his predecessors of the same name wrote it with a K; and the same difference is observable in their coins. As an abbreviation, C stands for Caius, Carolus, Caesar, condemnus, &c., and CC represent *centulus*. As a numeral, C signifies 100, CC 200, and so on. C, in *Musie*, placed after the cleff, intimates that the music is in common time, which is either quick or slow as it is joined with allegro or adagio; but if alone, it is usually adagio. If the C be crossed or turned, the first requires the air to be played quick, and the last very quick.

CAABA, or CAABAN, properly signifies a square stone building, but it is particularly applied by the Mahomedans to the temple at Mecca, built, as they pretend, by Abraham and his son Ishmael. This temple enjoys the privilege of an asylum for all sorts of criminals; but it is most remarkable for the pilgrimages made to it by the devout Moslems, who pay it so great a veneration that they account a single sight of its sacred walls, without any particular act of devotion, as meritorious in the sight of God, as the most careful discharge of one's duty, for the space of a whole year, in any other temple.

CAANA, or KAANA, a town in Upper Egypt, seated on the eastern bank of the river Nile, whence corn and pulse are carried for the supply of Mecca in Arabia. Here are several monuments of antiquity yet remaining, adorned with hieroglyphics. Long. 32. 23. E. Lat. 24. 30. N.

CAB, a Hebrew dry measure, being the sixth part of a seah or satum, and the eighteenth part of an ephah. A cab contained $\frac{2}{3}$ pints of our old corn measure.

CABAL, a name aptly given to the infamous ministry

of Charles II. composed of five persons, Clifford, Ashley, Buckingham, Arlington, and Lauderdale, the first letters of whose names, in this order, furnished the appellation by which they were distinguished.

CABALLARIA, in middle-age writers, lands held by the tenure of furnishing a horseman with suitable equipage during war, or when the lord had occasion for him.

CABALLEROS, or CAVALLEROS, are Spanish wools, of which there is a pretty considerable trade at Bayonne in France, and other places.

CABALLINE denotes something belonging to horses. Thus caballine aloes is so called, from its being chiefly used for purging horses; and common brimstone is called *sulphur caballinum*, for a similar reason.

CABANIS, PETER JOHN GEORGE, a distinguished writer and physician at Paris, was born at Conac in 1757. His father, John Baptiste Cabanis, was a lawyer of eminence, and chief magistrate of a district in the Lower Limousin, highly respected for his extensive knowledge and inflexible integrity, and entitled to the gratitude of his country for the many improvements he has introduced in agriculture and farming. He brought the culture of the vine to great perfection in his province, and introduced a mixed breed of sheep, by crossing the Spanish with those of Limousin and Berri. France is more particularly indebted to him, however, for the successful methods he discovered of grafting fruit trees, and also for contributing to render more general the use of the potato in the southern provinces. He was exceedingly anxious that his son, the subject of the present article, and who had given early indications of talent, should have the advantage of a learned education; and he accordingly placed him, when only seven years old, under the tuition of a neighbouring priest. It was remarked that, even at this early age, he had acquired habits of steadiness and perseverance, from which, under proper direction, the best results might be expected. At the age of ten he entered the college of Brive, where the severity of discipline to which he was subjected had an injurious effect upon his temper, and fostered that habitual impatience of restraint which formed part of his character, and which afterwards so frequently operated to interrupt his progress. When raised to the second class, he was fortunate in meeting with a master whose kind treatment soon softened a disposition which harshness only had rendered stubborn and intractable. He was not only reconciled to study, but applied to it with the utmost diligence, and became passionately fond of the great models of poetry and eloquence which were put into his hands. At a later period, being again exposed to the rigorous control of one of the heads of the college, his spirit was once more roused; he came to the determination of provoking the anger of his master, and even suffered himself to be accused of a fault of which he was innocent, in the hope that he might get expelled. Persisting in this extraordinary mode of conduct, he soon accomplished his object, and was sent back to his father. But far from en-

Cabanis, joying any relaxation under the paternal roof, he now found himself under a subjection still more rigorous and insupportable than that from which he had managed to escape. Indignant at the yoke imposed upon him, he relapsed into his habits of obstinacy, and would do nothing. After a year had thus passed in sullenness, his father became sensible that other measures than those of severity must be tried, and adopted the bold expedient of taking him to Paris, and leaving him there, at the age of fourteen, without any restraint on his actions, or even commissioning any one to superintend his conduct. The experiment was hazardous in the extreme, but it was attended with complete success. Young Cabanis no sooner felt himself at full liberty to do as he pleased, than his love of literature revived, and he engaged with ardour in the pursuit. He had formerly paid no attention to the lectures of his professors; but he now, of his own accord, resumed those branches of his education in which he had remained deficient, and prosecuted them with the same perseverance which marked his character throughout. He devoted himself entirely to the cultivation of his mind, and associated only with a few chosen companions of his own age, who had a congenial taste for literature, and an equal desire of improvement.

Thus constantly occupied, two years passed away with a rapidity which astonished him, when he received a letter from his father, offering him the place of secretary to a Polish nobleman of high rank. He had now to choose between accepting a situation, which, although it would totally interrupt his present pursuits, might give him the power of resuming them at some future period, or returning to his family, where he felt that all his exertions must be paralysed, and his hopes blighted by neglect. He embraced, therefore, without hesitation, the offer made to him, and, though only sixteen, committed himself into the hands of strangers, in a distant country, which was represented to him as in a state of barbarism. This was in 1773, the year during which that diet was sitting which was to deliberate upon giving its sanction to the first partition of Poland. The corrupt intrigues and compulsory measures which were practised on that occasion gave him an insight into the affairs of the world peculiarly revolting to a youthful and generous mind, and inspired him with a contempt for mankind, and a degree of misanthropic gloom, which are generally the fruits of a later experience of human depravity. He returned to Paris two years afterwards, when Turgot, the friend of his father, was minister of finance. On being presented to this statesman, he was received with kindness, and would soon have been placed in a situation perfectly conformable to his tastes and wishes, had not a court intrigue produced the sudden downfall of the minister.

Thus, the only fruits which he had gathered from his travels were the knowledge of the German language, and a premature acquaintance with the world. He now felt the necessity of making up for the time he had lost, and again applied to his studies with his former ardour. His father, feeling it incumbent upon him to second his efforts, secured to him the means of subsistence for two or three years longer, which was all that Cabanis desired. He had contracted a friendship with the poet Roucher, who possessed some celebrity. This connection rekindled his taste for poetry; and the French Academy having proposed as a prize subject the translation of a passage in the *Iliad*, he not only ventured to appear as competitor, but set about translating the entire poem. The two specimens which he sent to the Academy did not obtain any public notice, but they were judged of favourably by several persons of taste; and some other fragments that were published among the notes to the poem *Des Mois*, met

with general approbation. He received the approbation of those critics who were the dispensers of literary fame in Paris, and was introduced at once into a large circle of acquaintance, where he was everywhere greeted with acclamation. He was soon, however, sensible of the emptiness of these applauses; and, dissatisfied with successes that offered no prospect of solid advantage, he sunk into a state of melancholy, which, together with his excessive application to study, began visibly to prey upon his constitution. His father now urged him to choose a useful profession, and he at length decided for that of medicine, which, embracing such various objects of study, presented an ample field for the exertions of his active mind, while it necessitated that degree of bodily exercise which had become so necessary for the preservation of his health. Dubreuil, whose counsels had had much influence with him in forming this determination, offered to be his guide in the new and arduous career which he was commencing. Cabanis continued for six years the pupil of this able master, following his steps both in his hospital and private practice, and conducting his studies conformably to his instructions. In 1789 he published *Observations sur les Hôpitaux*, a work which procured him the appointment of administrator of hospitals at Paris.

His state of health, in the midst of his laborious professional exertions, requiring occasional relaxation in the country, he fixed upon Auteuil, in the immediate vicinity of Paris, as his place of residence. It was there that he became acquainted with the widow of Helvétius, and ever after cherished for that excellent woman the affection of a son, as she, on her part, fulfilled towards him the duties of the kindest mother. He spent all his leisure hours in her society, and profited by the opportunity her house afforded him of cultivating the acquaintance of the most distinguished literary men of that period. He continued his intercourse with Turgot; he was on terms of intimacy with Condillac, Thomas, and D'Alembert; and acquired the friendship of Holbach, Franklin, and Jefferson. During the last visit which Voltaire made to Paris, Cabanis was presented to him by Turgot, and read to him part of his translation of the *Iliad*, which that acute critic, though old, infirm, and fatigued with his journey, listened to with great interest, and bestowed much commendation on the talents of the author. Cabanis had now, however, long ceased to occupy himself with that work; and, fully engaged with the studies and duties of his profession, had renounced the cultivation of letters. He even bade a formal adieu to poetry in his *Serment d'un Médecin*, which appeared in 1780, and is a free imitation of the Greek of Hippocrates, but is more remarkable as exhibiting the author in the light of a zealous friend to liberty. Political interests were now, indeed, beginning to engross the general attention; and the muses were deserted amidst the contentions of parties, the din of arms, and the various anxieties and passions which were called into play during this eventful period. Cabanis espoused with enthusiasm the cause of the revolution, to which he was attached from principle, and of which the opening prospects were so congenial to his active and ardent mind. But, however he may have shared in the intoxication which seized its early partisans, it is certain that he had no participation in the criminal excesses which followed, and which have left so indelible a stain upon the history of those times.

During the two last years of Mirabeau's life he was intimately connected with that extraordinary man, who had the singular art of pressing into his service the pens of all his literary friends, whom he engaged to furnish him with their ideas, in writing, on the political topics of the day, that he might afterwards combine them as he chose, and adopt them as his own. Cabanis united himself with this

Cabanis.

disinterested association of labourers, and contributed the *Travail sur l'Éducation Publique*; a tract which was found among the papers of Mirabeau at his death, and was edited by the real author soon afterwards in 1791. During the illness which terminated his life, Mirabeau confided himself entirely to the professional skill of Cabanis; and, though repeatedly and strongly urged, as his danger increased, to have further medical assistance, constantly refused to have recourse to any other advice. Of the progress of the malady, and the circumstances attending the death of Mirabeau, Cabanis has drawn up a very detailed narrative, which, whatever proof it may afford of the warmth of his friendship for his patient, is not calculated to impress us with any high idea of his skill in the treatment of an acute inflammatory disease.

Condorcet was another distinguished character with whom Cabanis was on terms of intimacy. The calamitous events of the revolution, and the relentless persecution which the former was suffering from the party which had gained the ascendancy, tended only to unite them still more closely in the ties of friendship; and Cabanis exerted every means in his power to avert his impending fate. But all his efforts were unavailing; and he had only the melancholy consolation of preserving the last writings of his unfortunate friend, and of collecting his dying wishes relative to his wife and children. Soon after this event he married Charlotte Grouchy, sister to Madame Condorcet and to General Grouchy, a union which was a great source of happiness to him during the remainder of his life.

After the subversion of the government of the terrorists, Cabanis, on the establishment of central schools, was named professor of *Hygiène*, in the medical schools of the metropolis. He was chosen member of the National Institute the next year, and on the following was appointed clinical professor. He was afterwards member of the Council of Five Hundred, and then of the Conservative Senate. The dissolution of the Directory was the result of a motion which he made to that effect. But his political career was not of long continuance. He was profoundly affected at the turn which the affairs of his country were taking, so unfavourable to the cause of liberty, and so dispiriting to the friends of humanity; and the latter years of his life were, in consequence, deeply tinged with melancholy. A foe to tyranny in every shape, he was decidedly hostile to the policy of Bonaparte, and had constantly rejected all his solicitations to accept of a place under his government.

For some years before his death, his health became gradually more impaired, in consequence of the exertions and anxieties he had undergone; and, in the spring of 1807, he had a slight apoplectic attack, from which he soon recovered. He, however, took the warning that was thus given him, and retired from the laborious duties of his profession, spending the greatest part of his time at the chateau of his father-in-law at Meulan, about thirty miles from Paris. Here he again solaced himself with reading his favourite poets, and even had it in contemplation to resume his translation of the *Iliad*, which had been the first effort of his youthful muse. The rest of his time was devoted to kindness and beneficence, especially towards the poor, who flocked from all parts to consult him on their complaints. Increasing infirmity now made him sensible that his life was drawing near to a close; and he was fond of conversing on the subject of his approaching end, an event which he always contemplated with perfect serenity of mind. A more complete attack of his disorder at length carried him off on the 5th of May 1808, when he had attained his fifty-second year. He left a widow and a daughter to lament the loss of one who united to the ornaments of a highly cultivated mind the greatest sensibility and benevolence of heart.

Cabbala.

Besides the tracts already mentioned, he was author of several other works. The only one among them which is purely of a literary nature is the *Mélanges de Littérature Allemande, ou Choix de Traductions de l'Allemande*, &c. Paris, 8vo, 1797. It is dedicated to Madame Helvétius, and consists of translations of different works of Meiner, of a drama of Goethe's entitled *Stella*, of Gray's *Elegy on a Country Church Yard*, and of the *Idyl of Bion on the death of Adonis*. His work *Du Degré de Certitude de la Médecine* appeared in the same year; and a second edition was published in 1803, containing a republication of his *Observations sur les Hôpitaux*, and his *Journal de la Maladie et de la Mort de Mirabeau l'aîné*; together with a short tract on the punishment of the guillotine, in which he combats the opinion of Soemmerring, Elbauer, and Sue, that sensibility remains for some time after decapitation. This tract had already appeared in the *Magazin Encyclopédique*, and in the first volume of the *Mémoires de la Société Médicale d'Emulation*. This new edition also contains his *Rapport fait au Conseil des Cinq-cents sur l'Organisation des Ecoles de Médecine*; and a long dissertation entitled *Quelques Principes et quelques Vues sur les Séances Publiques*. In 1799 he published *Quelques Considérations sur l'Organisation sociale en général, et particulièrement sur la nouvelle Constitution*, 12mo. His principal work, however, is that entitled *Des Rapports du Physique et du Morale de l'Homme*, 1803, in two volumes 8vo; consisting of twelve essays, the first six of which had been presented to the National Institute, and were inserted in the first two volumes of their *Mémoires*, in the class of moral and political sciences. This work was reprinted in the following year, with the addition of a copious analytical table of its contents by M. Destutt-Tracy, and alphabetical indexes by M. Suard. His *Coup d'Œil sur les Révolutions et les Réformes de la Médecine* came out in 1808. Of this work we possess an excellent English translation, with notes by Dr Henderson. His only practical work on medicine is the *Observations sur les Affections Catarrhales en général, et particulièrement sur celles connues sous le nom de Rhumes de Cerveau, et Rhumes de Poitrine*, 8vo, 1807. He wrote many interesting articles in the *Magazin Encyclopédique*. Several of his speeches to the legislative assembly are given at full length in the *Moniteur*. (v.)

CABBAGE. See HORTICULTURE.

CABBALA, according to the Hebrew style, has a very distinct signification from that in which we understand it in our language. The Hebrew cabbala signifies tradition; and the rabbis, who are called cabbalists, study principally the combination of particular words, letters, and numbers, by which means they pretend to discover what is to come, and to see clearly into the sense of many difficult passages of Scripture. There are no sure principles of this knowledge, which in fact depends upon some particular traditions of the ancients; for which reason it is termed *cabbala*. The cabbalists have abundance of names which they call *secrets*, and not only make use of in invoking spirits, but imagine that they derive great light from them. They tell us that the secrets of the cabbala were discovered to Moses on Mount Sinai; and that these have been delivered down to them from father to son without interruption, and without any use of letters; for to write them down is what they are by no means permitted to do. This is likewise termed the oral law, because it passed from father to son, in order to distinguish it from the written law. There is another cabbala, called *artificial*, which consists in searching for abstruse and mysterious significations of a word in Scripture, from which are borrowed certain explanations, by combining the letters which compose it. This cabbala is divided into three kinds, the *gematric*, the *notaricon*, and the *themora* or *themura*. The first, or ge-

Cabbalists { **Cabin.** } matrix, consists in taking the letters of a Hebrew word for ciphers or arithmetical numbers, and explaining every word by the arithmetical value of the letters of which it is composed; the second, called *notaricon*, consists in taking every particular letter of a word for an entire diction; and the third, called *themura*, or change, consists in making different transpositions or changes of letters, placing one for the other, or one before the other. Among the Christians, likewise, a certain sort of magic is, by mistake, called *cabbala*, and consists in using improperly certain passages of Scripture for magical operations, or in forming magical characters or figures with stars and talismans. Some visionaries among the Jews believe that Jesus Christ wrought his miracles by virtue of the ridiculous mysteries of the cabbala.

CABBALISTS, the Jewish doctors who profess the study of the cabbala. In the opinion of these men, there is not a word, letter, nor accent in the law, without some mystery in it. The Jews are divided into two general sects; the *Karnites*, who refuse to receive either tradition or the Talmud, or any thing but the pure texts of Scripture; and the *Rabbinists*, or *Talmudists*, who besides this receive the traditions of the ancients, and follow the Talmud. The latter are again divided into two other sects; pure *rabbinists*, who explain the Scripture in its natural sense, by grammar, history, and tradition; and *cabbalists*, who, to discover hidden and mystical senses, which they suppose God to have couched therein, make use of the cabbala and the mystical methods above mentioned.

CABECA, or **CABESS**, a name given to the finest silks in the East Indies, while those from fifteen to twenty per cent. inferior to them are called *barina*. The Indian workmen endeavour to pass them off one with the other; for which reason the more experienced European merchants take care to open the bales, and to examine all the skaines one after another. The Dutch distinguish two sorts of cabecas, namely, the moor cabeca and the common cabeca.

CABELLO, or **CAVELLO PORTO**, a sea-port of Venezuela, in South America, with an excellent harbour and bay. It is situated a league to the west of the harbour of Bonburata, and has become the centre of the commerce and navigation of the province of Venezuela. The bay is exceedingly commodious, safe, and well defended from the prevailing winds. The trade of Cabello is considerable, and principally carried on with the ports of the same continent and with the neighbouring colonies; but only a few vessels are employed in that trade with the mother country. Population 8000. Long. 10. 20. E. Lat. 34. N.

CABENDA, a great emporium on the western coast of Africa, situated a little to the north of the river Zaire, in the district of Cacongo. From the remarkable beauty and fertility of its situation, it has been called the Paradise of the coast. The bay is very commodious for trade, wooding, and watering. Long. 12. 30. E. Lat. 5. 40. S.

CABEZA DE BUEY, a town in the Spanish province of Extremadura, with 3500 souls. There is carried on here a cloth manufactory, which employs 1666 workmen. **CABEZO**. See **ASPOGA**.

CABIDOS, or **CAVIDOS**, a long measure used at Goa, and other places of the East Indies belonging to the Portuguese, to measure stuffs, linens, and the like, and equal to four-sevenths of the Paris ell.

CABIN, a room or apartment in a ship, where any of the officers usually reside. There are many of these in a large ship, the principal of which is designed for the captain or commander. The apartments where the inferior officers or common sailors sleep and mess are usually called berths.

CABINET, the most retired place in the finest part of a building, set apart for writing, studying, or preserving any thing that is precious.

CABINET also denotes a piece of joiner's workmanship, being a kind of press or chest, with several doors and drawers. There are common cabinets of oak or of chestnut varnished, cabinets of China and Japan, cabinets of inlaid work, and cabinets of ebony, or other precious woods.

CABINET is also used in speaking of the more select and secret councils of princes. Thus, we say the secrets, the intrigues of the cabinet. To avoid the inconveniences of a numerous council, the policy of Italy and the practice of France first introduced cabinet councils.

CABINET-MAKING. See **JOINERY**.

CABIRI, a term in the theology of the ancient Pagans, signifying great and powerful gods, and being a name given to the gods of Samothracia. They were also worshipped in other parts of Greece, as Lemnos and Thebes, where the Cabiria were celebrated in honour of them. These gods are said to have been in number four, namely, Axieros, Axiocersa, Axiocersus, and Camilus.

CABIRIA, festivals in honour of the Cabiri, celebrated in Thebes and Lemnos, but especially in Samothracia, an island consecrated to the Cabiri. All persons initiated in the mysteries of these gods were thought to be thereby secure against storms at sea, and all other dangers. The ceremony of initiation was performed by placing the candidate, crowned with olive branches, and girded about the loins with a purple riband, on a kind of throne, about which danced the priests and persons previously initiated.

CABLE, a thick, large, strong rope, commonly of hemp, which serves to keep a ship at anchor.

Cable is also applied to ropes which are used to raise heavy loads by the help of cranes, pulleys, and other engines. The name cable is usually given to such as are at least three inches in circumference; those which are less are only called *ropes*, of different names, according to their use. See **ROPE-MAKING**.

Sheet Anchor CABLE is the greatest cable belonging to a ship.

Stream CABLE, a hawser or rope, used to moor the ship in a river or haven sheltered from the wind and sea.

CABLE'S Length, a measure of 120 fathoms, or of the usual length of the cable.

CABOT, SEBASTIAN, the celebrated navigator, and first discoverer of the American continent, was the son of John Cabot, a Venetian merchant, resident in England. Although the subject of much dispute for a long time, it is now placed beyond a doubt that England may confidently claim the honour of his birth. In an ancient collection of voyages and travels by Richard Eden, a learned writer and contemporary of Sebastian, the author, in a marginal note, says, "Sebastian Cabote told me, that he was borne in Brystowe (Bristol) and that at iiird year could he was carried with his father to Venice, and so returned againe into England with his father after certayne years, whereby he was thought to have been borne in Venice." (*Decades of the New World*, fol. 255.) It also appears that he returned, while still young (*seno infans*), to England, and remained there till he grew up to manhood.

From an unaccountable laxity in the scrutiny of writers, considerable misrepresentations relating to this extraordinary man have hitherto prevailed, and obtained general credence. These hypothetical statements, so long maintained, must now give place to facts, which the research of a modern writer has recently brought to light, and placed upon a basis of irrefragable veracity.¹

¹ See a *Memoir of Sebastian Cabot, with a Review of the History of Maritime Discovery, illustrated by documents from the Rolls, now first published*. 8vo. London, 1831.

Cabot.

The brilliant discoveries of Columbus, towards the close of the fourteenth century, awakened a spirit of enterprise throughout the enlightened nations of Europe; and England was not inattentive to movements, from which great and important advantages might result to her dominions. Her monarch, Henry VII. however avariciously inclined, evinced great readiness to facilitate and promote adventure in the novel career opened up to human ambition. The all-important and engrossing object was to discover a route to India; and an expedition in a north-westerly direction, ostensibly to reach what was called Cathay, or the Land of Spice, was speedily, after the discoveries of Columbus, projected by Sebastian Cabot, and fitted out under the auspices of the English government. The first patent, which bears date the 5th of March 1496 (Rymer, *Fœdera*, vol. xii. p. 593), was given to John Cabot, and his three sons, Lewis, Sebastian, and Scaucus, and authorizes them "to seek out, discover, and find whatsoever isles, countries, regions, or provinces of the heathen and infidels, whatsoever they be, and in what part of the world soever they be, which before this time have been unknown to all Christians." The patentees were further empowered to set up the royal banner, and occupy and possess all the "newly found" lands in the name of the king, who reserved a fifth of the profits. It was also stipulated that the vessels should return to Bristol, and that the privilege of exclusive resort and traffic belonged to the patentees.

Although the patent was conferred on John Cabot and his three sons, there can be no doubt, even if the father did accompany the expedition, that its success was entirely owing to the genius of Sebastian. The inaccuracies which have arisen from the loose investigation and immature consideration of several ancient and modern writers, are now satisfactorily traced to certain perverted statements of Hakluyt; and their exposition, which we owe to the industry and acumen of the author of the Memoir alluded to, is worthy of attentive examination. Suffice it here to remark, that from a singular misinterpretation of some documents, and the omission of others, John Cabot, who was not the discoverer, but only a part owner of an expedition to discover new lands, erroneously got the credit, not only of his son Sebastian's discovery of the American continent, but also of possessing powers of mind and scientific knowledge which were scarcely inferior to those possessed by Columbus himself.

To Sebastian Cabot, therefore, belongs the undoubted glory of the first discovery of the *terra firma* of the Western World. The expedition, consisting of the ship commanded by Sebastian, and three or four smaller vessels, sailed from Bristol in the beginning of May 1497; and an ancient Bristol manuscript records the fact, that, "in the year 1497, the 21th June, on St John's day, was Newfoundland found, by Bristol men, in a ship called the *Mathew*." On the authority of Peter Martyr, we learn, that after quitting the north, where he reached latitude sixty-seven and a half, Cabot proceeded along the coast of the continent, to a latitude corresponding probably with that of the Straits of Gibraltar. Indeed he is said to have gone so far southward, "at Cuban Insulam heva longitudine graduum pene parum habuerit." A failure of provisions at this point compelled him to desist from further pursuit, and the expedition returned to England.

The second patent, which for the first time has been published in the Memoir referred to, is dated 3d February 1498, and gives authority to "John Kabotto or his deputies," to take at pleasure six English ships, and "them convey and lede to the londe and isles of late found." Shortly after the date of this patent John Cabot died; and it is said that his sons Lewis and Scaucus went to settle in Italy. Sebastian, however, did not abandon

Cabot.

an enterprise in which he had embarked; and a second voyage was zealously undertaken under his superintendence. A ship equipped at the king's expense, along with four small vessels, sailed from Bristol in the spring of the year 1498. It is curious, that although, both from the language of the patent, and the circumstance of three hundred men embarking, colonization seems to have been contemplated, the leading object of the voyage was to effect the discovery of a north-west passage. The result is unfortunately wrapt in much obscurity. Gomara alone furnishes us with what may be a correct account. According to this author, Cabot "directed his course by the tracte of islande, upon the Cape of Labrador, at 47th. degrees; affirminge that, in the moneth of July, there was such cold, and heapes of ice, that he durst passe no further; also, that the dayes were very longe, and in manner without nyght, and the nyghtes very clear. Certayne it is, that at the 1x. degrees, the longest day is of xviii. houres. But consyderinge the coulede, and the strangeness of the unknowne lande, he turned his course from thence to the west, folowynge the coast of the lande of Bacallao unto the xxviii. degrees, from whence he returned to England." (*Eden's Decades*, fol. 318.)

The results of this second voyage were not sufficiently important to induce Henry to equip another expedition. We have good authority for believing, however, that Cabot, in 1499, "with no extraordinary preparations sett forth from Bristol, and made great discoveries." (Seyler's *Memoirs of Bristol*.) This is confirmed by the navigator Hojeda having, in his first voyage, found "certain Englishmen" in the neighbourhood of Caquiabaco. It is highly probable, from the unlikelihood of any other English seamen pursuing such a route, that these were Cabot and his companions. But the narrative of Cabot's life for the fifteen years subsequent to the departure of his second expedition is meagre and unsatisfactory. One circumstance deserves notice, that during that period Amerigo Vespucci, in company with Hojeda, crossed the Atlantic for the first time, whilst Sebastian was prosecuting his third voyage; yet, as the author of his memoirs says, "while the name of the one overspreads the new world, no bay, cape, or headland, recalls the memory of the other."

After the death of Henry VII., upon the invitation of Ferdinand, Sebastian Cabot went to Spain; and Vespucci, who held the office of pilot-major, having died, he was appointed his successor. He was soon employed in a general revision of maps and charts; and his public and private character endeared him to most of the learned and good men in Spain. He had, however, like Columbus, many enemies; and the death of Ferdinand put an end to an expedition then in contemplation. The ignoble commencement of the reign of Charles V. frustrated all further hopes of its prosecution; and Cabot in disgust returned to England, where, under Henry VIII. he got honourable employment, and performed another westwardly voyage in 1517, which, however, from various causes, proved unsuccessful.

In 1518 we find our navigator in Spain, and again reinstated in the appointment of pilot-major. The dispute between Spain and Portugal in regard to their respective rights to the Moluccas having been decided at the congress of Badajoz in 1524 in favour of Spain, a company was formed at Seville to open a commercial intercourse with these islands; and Cabot, with the title of Captain-general, set sail, after many delays, with a fleet in April 1526. The squadron was ill assorted, and a mutiny broke out, the consequences of which diverted his course from the Moluccas to the mouth of the Rio de la Plata, up which he penetrated about three hundred and fifty leagues. He erected a fort at St Salvador; and afterwards sailing up

Cabra
Cabal.

the Parana, he built other two forts. He subsequently entered the Paraguay, where he was drawn into a sanguinary contest with the natives. From the report then made by him to Charles V. it is probable, had he been supplied with means and ammunition, he would have made the conquest of Peru, which Pizarro afterwards accomplished with his own private resources. After tarrying in the hopes of receiving supplies, Cabot was forced to return to Spain, where he resumed his functions of pilot-major.

He finally settled in England, where he appears to have exercised a general supervision over the maritime concerns of the country, and enjoyed a pension of two hundred and fifty marks. It was then that he disclosed to Edward VI. his discovery of the phenomenon of the variation of the needle—a discovery for which alone his name deserves to be immortalized. It was also at his instigation that the important expedition was undertaken which resulted in the opening of the trade with Russia; and in the charter of the company of merchant adventurers he was nominated governor for life, as “the chiefest settler-forth” of the enterprise. Cabot lived to a very advanced age, and died probably in London; but neither the date of his death nor the place of his interment is properly authenticated.

Sebastian Cabot may be justly regarded as one of the most illustrious navigators the world has ever seen. His life exhibits one continued devotion to the mighty impulses of his genius. England owes him a debt of imperishable gratitude. “He ended,” says the author of the *Memoir* which has rescued so much of his life from obscurity, “he ended, as he had begun, his career in the service of his native country, infusing into her marine a spirit of lofty enterprise, a high moral tone, a system of mild but inflexible discipline, of which the results were not long after so conspicuously displayed. Finally, he is seen to open new sources of commerce, of which the influence may be distinctly traced on her present greatness and prosperity.” (z. z.)

CABRA, a town of Central Africa, situated on the Niger, and serving as a port to Timbuctoo, from which it is about twelve miles distant. It is represented as consisting of one long row of about 1200 houses along the river; the ground is wet and marshy. The people are entirely employed in trade.

CABRERA, an island belonging to Spain, in the Mediterranean Sea, to the south of Majorca. There is a castle, and a presidio to which delinquents are transported, and kept to hard labour, from the neighbouring ports of the peninsula. It is provided with excellent springs of water, and the harbour is of great capacity, and has good anchorage, with from fifteen to twenty fathoms of water, so that the largest ships of war can enter. The centre of the island is in long. 3. 31. 26. E. and lat. 39. 7. 30. N.

CABUL, or CAUBUL, a province of Afghanistan, which sometimes gives its name to the whole kingdom, with which its limits are frequently confounded. It is estimated to extend 250 miles in length by 150 in average breadth. It is situated between the 33d and 35th degrees of north lat. and is bounded on the north by Kuttora or Caffistan, on the east by Peshawar or the Indus, on the south by Ghizni and Candahar, and on the west by Hazareh. The country is divided into two parts by a ridge of very high mountains, which run from east to west, and are covered with snow the greater part of the year, whilst the valleys are scorched with excessive heat; the country contains, besides, hills of moderate height, and extensive plains and forests. But from the Indus to the city of Cabul there is a great scarcity of wood, and a want of fuel in the winter season for the poorer classes. Near Baramow is a sandy uninhabited valley, twenty miles in length; the tract lying to the north of the dividing ridge of mountains is named

Cabul
Cacemmo.

Lumghanat, that to the south Bungishshat. There are valleys, each intersected in its whole length by one or more considerable streams running through it. The valley of Cabul lies between the Hindoo Cosh Mountains on the north and the Soliman ridge on the south, and is in many places about twenty-five miles in breadth. Towards the east the valley is occupied by hills of inferior elevation, that connect the mountainous ridges. West of these hills is the town of Jellalabad, and farther west the country still rises. The river Cabul runs through the centre of this province, which is principally occupied by pastoral tribes, who constantly live in tents, migrating periodically with the seasons; during the summer months occupying the mountains, and in winter returning to the valleys. These vagrant tribes attend little to agriculture, and it is in the vicinity of the towns only that the country is well cultivated. The chief towns are Cabul, Peshawar, Ghizni, Jellalabad, &c. A considerable trade is carried on by the inhabitants of the towns. To Cabul resort merchants from the most distant countries. A number of horses are brought here from Tartary, which are exported to Hindustan; also furs and hides, which are exchanged for the indigo and other productions of Hindustan. To Candahar are exported iron, leather, and lamp-oil, whence the returns are made in the manufactures of Persia and Europe.

CABUL, a very ancient city, and at present the capital of Afghanistan, surrounded by a brick wall about a mile and a half in circumference, with towers at the angles, and scarcely any ditch. It stands on the eastern side of two united hills of a semicircular form, in the midst of an extensive and fertile plain, well watered, and interspersed with walled villages. A stream runs through the town, and has a small bridge over it. Through the plain runs the Cabul river, over which, at the distance of four or five miles to the southward of the city, is a bridge of brick. The houses are built of rough stones and clay, and make but a mean appearance. Four spacious bazars were erected here in the centre of the city, by Ali Murdan Khan, a celebrated Persian nobleman, who for many years governed these western provinces. These are now occupied by the meanest order of mechanics, and the fountains with which they were supplied are choked up with filth. The citadel, called Bala-Hissar, or Upper Fort, is situated on a rising ground in the eastern quarter of the city, and it contains the palace and other public buildings. The climate, from the vicinity of the great central range of the Hindoo Cosh Mountains, covered with perpetual snow, inclines to cold, and is liable also to sudden variations. Cabul is a great resort of trade, and the great bazar is frequently crowded with Usbeck Tartars, and with Hindoos from Peshawar. This city is mentioned by the Arabian historians in the seventh century as the residence of a Hindoo prince. It was for some time the capital of the Emperor Baber, and in the year 1739 was taken by Nadir Shah, who, after abandoning it to plunder, annexed it, along with the province, to his Persian dominions. On his death Ahmed Shah Abdally took possession of it, and in the year 1774 it was constituted the capital of Afghanistan by his son Timour Shah. The travelling distance from Delhi is 839 miles, from Agra 976, from Lucknow 1118, and from Calcutta 1815 miles.

CABIYNA, a small island in the Eastern Seas, about twenty-one miles in length by fifteen in breadth, lying due south of the eastern extremity of Celebes. Long. 121. 53. E. Lat. 5. 18. S.

CACAVONE, a town of Italy, in the Neapolitan province of Molese, with 2247 inhabitants.

CACCAMO, a city in the intendency of Palermo, in the island of Sicily. It is situated on the shore, and contains 6420 inhabitants.

CACERES, a town of Spain, in the province of Estremadura. It is situated on the left bank of the Tagus, between Alcantara and Truxillo, and principally known for giving its name to a particular kind of Merino wool, of a second or third rate fineness. It contains 8000 inhabitants, and has twenty-six tanneries, which employ sixty-two workmen, and complete 16,680 pieces; it has also three potteries, seven rope-walks, and four dyeing houses.

CACHALONG, a name given by mineralogists to a peculiar variety of calcedony. It is commonly of a milk-white colour, and translucent, occurring imbedded in the trap rocks of Iceland and Faro, along with calcedony. It is met with also on the borders of the river Cach in Bukharia; whence its designation.

CACHAO, **KACHO**, **KACHO**, or **BACKHINC**, the capital of the kingdom of Tonquin, in Asia, situated on the west side of the river Songkol, about eighty miles from the sea. It is of great extent, and has neither walls nor fortifications, being merely surrounded by a bamboo hedge. The principal streets are wide and airy, and for the most part are paved with bricks and small stones; intermediate spaces being, however, left for the passage of elephants and other beasts of burden. The other streets are narrow and ill paved. Many of the houses are built with brick, though the larger proportion are constructed of mud and timber, and thatched with leaves, straw, or reeds, which exposes them to the danger of fires; and they are not above one story in height. The magazines and warehouses belonging to foreigners are the only edifices built of brick; and these, though plain, yet, by reason of their height and more elegant structure, make a considerable show among the rows of wooden huts. The public edifices are very spacious, but particularly the royal palace, which is several miles in circuit, and is surrounded by high walls. It contains many buildings within its precincts, which are devoted to different purposes, and embellished with a variety of carvings and gildings after the Indian manner, all finely varnished. In the outer court are sumptuous stables for the king's horses and elephants. It was extremely difficult to procure access to the inner courts during the residence of the sovereigns of Tonquin, who have for some years past transferred their abode to a city in Cochinchina. Besides this palace there are to be seen the ruins of one still more magnificent, which is said to have been six miles in circumference. Cachao is a great commercial resort, and its trade is facilitated by the river, which is always crowded with vessels. The imports are long cloths, chintz, arms, pepper, and other articles, in exchange for which gold is given; and manufactured goods, namely, beautiful silks, and lackered ware, which is generally reckoned superior to any in the East. The English factory, which stood on the banks of the river, north of the city, and that of the Dutch, south of it, have long been withdrawn. On the opposite side of the Songkol is the Campez, a town of the Chinese. Cachao, built chiefly of wooden and brick houses, is peculiarly liable to fires; and to prevent these, or to extinguish them after they have broken out, the city is governed by a very rigid police, and is divided into wards, each subjected to a certain jurisdiction. Fires for domestic use are only permitted some hours during the day. About the middle of the eighteenth century the city was nearly burnt to the ground by a conflagration, which was the work of incendiaries, who discharged fire-arrows during the night against the straw-covered roofs, and the whole was in a moment in a blaze. The accounts of the population vary extremely. By some of the missionaries it is reckoned equal to that of Paris. Later authors compute it at 40,000. Long. 105. 15. E. Lat. 22. 36. N.

CACHAR, a district in Asia, tributary to the Burman

empire, and lying about the twenty-fifth degree of north latitude, between that country and Bengal. It is a mountainous and sterile country, bounded on the north by Assam, on the south by the Cassay country, on the east by Cassay, and on the west by the districts of Tipperah and Silhet in the province of Bengal. It is of a large though uncertain extent. The country is naturally fertile, but greatly overgrown with jungle, and thinly inhabited. The natives are Hindoos of the Khutzi tribe, and are said to be very pusillanimous. It was invaded by a Burman army in 1774, but the troops were attacked by the hill fever, and died in such numbers that they were obliged to retreat, and were finally cut off in detail by the natives. A second expedition in 1776 was more successful; and the rajah of Cachar was obliged to do homage to the Burman sovereign. The British formerly maintained an intercourse with this country, but since it has fallen under the Burman yoke this intercourse has been stopped.

CACHUNDE, the name of a medicine, highly celebrated among the Chinese and Indians, and composed of several aromatic ingredients, perfumes, medicinal earth, and precious stones. They make the whole into a stiff paste, and, according to their fancy, form out of it several figures, which are dried for use; these are principally used in the East Indies, but are sometimes brought over to Portugal. In China the principal persons usually carry a small piece in their mouths, which is a continued cordial, and gives their breath a very sweet smell.

CACOPHONIA, in *Grammar* and *Rhetoric*, the meeting of two letters or syllables which yield an uncouth and disagreeable sound. The word is compounded of *caxax*, bad, and *phon*, voice.

CACUS, in fabulous history, an Italian shepherd upon Mount Aventine. As Hercules was driving home the herd of King Geryon, whom he had slain, Cacus robbed him of some of his oxen, which he drew backward into his den lest they should be discovered. Hercules at last finding them out by their lowing, or the robbery being otherwise discovered to him, killed Cacus with his club. He was Vulcan's son, of prodigious bulk, and half man half satyr.

CADALEN, a market-town of the department of the Taro, in France, on the river Candou, with 1404 inhabitants.

CADARI, or **KADARI**, a sect of Mahomedans, who assert free will, attribute the actions of men to men alone, not to any secret power determining the will, and deny all absolute decrees, and predestination. The author of this sect was Mabeb ben Kaled al Gihoni, who suffered martyrdom for his doctrine. The word comes from the Arabic, *cadara*, power. Ben Aun calls the Cadarians the Magi or Manichees of the Moslems.

CADENCE, or **REPOSE**, in *Music* (from the Latin *cadere*, to fall or descend), the termination of an harmonical phrase on a repose, or on a perfect chord.

CADENCE, in *Reading*, is a falling of the voice below the key-note at the close of every period. In reading, whether prose or verse, a certain tone is assumed, which is called the *key-note*; and in this tone the bulk of the words are sounded; but this note is generally lowered towards the close of every sentence.

CADENET, a city of the department of the Vaucluse, in France, on the right bank of the Durance, with distilleries for brandy, and 2447 inhabitants.

CADEROUSE, a city of the department of Vaucluse, in France, where are several silk mills. It contains 800 houses and 3876 inhabitants.

CADET, the younger son of a family, is a term naturalized in our language from the French. In Spain it is usual for one of the cadets in great families to take the mother's name.

Cadet
Cádiz.

CADET is also a military term denoting a young gentleman who chooses to carry arms in a marching regiment as a private man. His views are, to acquire some knowledge in the art of war, and to obtain a commission in the army. Cadet differs from volunteer, as the former takes pay, whereas the latter serves without pay.

CADL, or CADUI, a judge of civil affairs in the Turkish empire. It is generally taken for the judge of a town, judges of provinces being distinguished by the appellation of *mollahs*.

CADILESCHER, a capital officer of justice among the Turks, answering to a chief justice among us. There are but three cadileschers in all the grand seignior's territories; the first is that of Europe, the second that of Anatolia, and the third resides at Grand Cairo. This last used to be the most considerable. The cadileschers have seats in the divan next to the grand vizir.

CADILAC, a city of the department of the Gironde, in France, where there are some considerable iron-works, and cutlery and other goods made. The inhabitants are 1326.

CADIZ, the most important maritime city of Spain. It is situated in the province of Seville, one of the four divisions of Andalusia. Its situation is peculiarly favourable for foreign commerce, especially with the western world, as being more southerly and westerly than any other considerable port. Its harbour, or rather bay, is a most secure port; and the entrance, though obstructed by some groups of rocks, which, being visible, may be avoided, is both easy and safe. The anchorage-ground is good for holding, and it is well protected by strong fortifications. Vessels cannot indeed approach the wharfs, but must be loaded and unloaded by the assistance of barges; and but for this drawback, it would perhaps be the best port in Europe. It is situated at the extremity of a long ridge of sand, which connects it with the Isla de Leon, and separates the bay from the ocean. If those who defend Cadiz are masters of the sea, it is perhaps the most impregnable fortress in the world; but by means of a superior naval force and a large army, it is thought by the best judges to be liable to capture. The spot on which the city is built being very contracted, and incapable of extension, the streets are in consequence narrow, and the houses lofty, so that those of the public buildings which are not near the walls have their magnificence hid from the eye of common observers.

From its situation, Cadiz is destitute of good water; and though most of the houses have reservoirs for the preservation of rain, a scarcity is felt, and expensively removed by means of numerous boats, which are constantly occupied in the conveyance of water across the bay from the city of Santa Maria. They yearly expend 180,000 guilders in this necessary article. Its principal buildings are the general hospital, which is excellently regulated, and where the aged, the infirm, the sick, and orphans, are relieved. The cathedral, though rich in ornaments, is inferior to most of the episcopal churches in Spain; but a new one, which has been more than ninety years in building, will, if ever it be finished upon the present plan, be extremely magnificent. The other churches are numerous, elegant, and in general richly endowed, and many of them decorated with pictures, the productions of Murillo, Velasquez, Zubaron, and the other great masters of the Spanish school.

When Spain possessed a navy, the principal arsenal was at Caracacas, which is reached by the largest ships through an inlet from the bay of Cadiz. The magazines and stores are beautiful, and well adapted for the design; and the arsenal is well guarded by a deep ravine on one side, which separates it from the continent, and by impassable marshes on the other.

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As Cadiz is situated on the extremity of a sand-bank, its commerce depends on the country around it, and on the security which its port affords to all property when once within it. It has hence become the entrepôt for almost the whole extensive commerce of the Spanish empire in the western hemisphere. The articles required for the supply of these colonies from Russia, Germany, England, Holland, and France, as well as the manufactures of Spain, are first collected here, and from hence distributed over the whole surface of Spanish America. The whole of the gold and silver from Mexico and Peru, and the other valuable productions of those countries, centre here, and are then diffused over the surface of Europe, in return for the various commodities that have been furnished. The imports from America in 1805 amounted in merchandise to 45,865,396, and in silver to 77,328,403 guilders. Besides this commerce with America, Cadiz is the focus into which are collected the wines and oils which Andalusia produces, and the other valuable commodities of the adjacent country.

The custom-house is a well-regulated establishment, and enjoys in its various store-houses great conveniences for the reception of such goods as are brought to it to be re-exported. The trade of Cadiz, like that of most of the other more eminent maritime cities in the Spanish dominions, is under the regulation of a body called the Consulado, consisting of the principal merchants, who have very considerable power and wealth as a corporation, and are besides a tribunal for determining such legal questions as are purely commercial.

The police of the city is regulated by the *cabildo* or municipal corporation, to whom, under the orders of the governor, is intrusted the preservation of the public walks and buildings, the cleansing and lighting of the streets, the care of the prisons and hospitals, and other similar objects.

Several establishments in this city bespeak an attention not merely to commerce, but to science. There is a college, in which both the classics and mathematics are taught, as well as the theology of the Peninsula. There is an astronomical observatory, in which observations are continually made, and where a nautical ephemeris is composed, which does not suffer by comparison with those of Greenwich or of Paris. Some of the best maps extant have been framed by those who were educated here; and the names of Malaspina, Lopez, Tofini, and Rios de Mendoza, will be of equal authority with any that England or France has produced.

This city was known before the Roman conquest as a place of trade, and not improbably was the port of Tarishish, to which the ships of Solomon resorted. Under the name of Gades it was long occupied by the Romans, and was a place of great importance to Cæsar in his wars with the Pompeys. A bridge called Puente de Suarzo, leading from the continent to the city, was, according to tradition, constructed by that commander; but though it is now known to be of more recent erection, it is highly probable, from the importance of the passage, that a bridge on the spot was erected by the Roman conqueror.

The inhabitants of Cadiz, in ordinary times, amount to about 75,000. During the late war, when it was the ultimate refuge of the government, they are said to have been trebled; but of this, and the other occurrences of the war, the article SPAIN will narrate the particulars. Very accurate observations have fixed the observatory to be in north latitude 36. 32, and west longitude 2. 33. 54. from Madrid, or 5. 43. 54. from Greenwich. (c.)

CADIZADELITES, a sect of Mahomedans very like the ancient Stoics. They shun feasts and diversions, and affect an extraordinary gravity in all their actions; they

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are continually talking of God, and some of them make a jumble of Christianity and Mahomedanism. They drink wine, even in the fast of the Ramazan; they love and protect the Christians; they believe that Mahomed is the Holy Ghost; they practise circumcision, and justify it by the example of Jesus Christ.

CADMEAN LETTERS, the sixteen ancient Greek or Ionic characters, such as they were first brought by Cadmus from Phœnicia, whence Herodotus calls them also Phœnician Letters. According to some writers, Cadmus was not the inventor, nor even the importer, but only the modeller and reformer, of the Greek letters; and it was from this circumstance they acquired the appellation Cadmean or Phœnician Letters; whereas, before that time, they had been called Pelagian Letters.

CADMIUM. This metal has not yet been met with in its native state, but is contained in certain ores of zinc, and especially in the black fibrous blende of Bohemia, which contains about five per cent. of it. It was discovered by M. Stromeyer in 1817, who used the following process for separating it from its ore. He dissolved it in dilute sulphuric or muriatic acid, and after adding a portion of free acid, transmitted a current of sulphuretted hydrogen gas through the liquid, by which means the cadmium was precipitated as sulphuret, while the zinc remained in solution. The sulphuret of cadmium was then decomposed by nitric acid, and the solution evaporated to dryness; then the dry nitrate of cadmium was dissolved in water, and an excess of carbonate of ammonia added. The white carbonate of cadmium subsides, which, when heated to redness, yielded a pure oxide, and by mixing this oxide with charcoal, and exposing it to a further heat, metallic cadmium was obtained in the form of sublimation. Dr Wollaston's process is somewhat more simple; he placed the solution of the mixed metals in a platinum capsule along with a piece of metallic zinc. If cadmium be present it is reduced, and adheres to the capsule, after which it may be dissolved, either by nitric or dilute muriatic acid.

The cadmium thus obtained has in colour and lustre a strong resemblance to tin, but is somewhat harder and more tenacious. It is very ductile and malleable; melts at about the same temperature as tin, but is nearly as volatile as mercury; condensing like it into globules which have a metallic lustre. When heated in the open air it absorbs oxygen, and is converted into an orange-coloured oxide. It is readily dissolved by nitric acid, but is less easily acted upon by sulphuric and muriatic acids. Its specific gravity is 8.62.

CADMUS, in fabulous history, king of Thebes, the son of Agenor, king of Phœnicia, and the brother of Phœnix, Cilix, and Europa. According to tradition, he carried into Greece the sixteen simple letters of the Greek alphabet; and there built Thebes, in Bœotia. The poets say that he left his native country in search of his sister Europa, whom Jupiter had carried away in the form of a bull; and that, inquiring of the Delphic oracle for a settlement, he was answered, that he should follow the direction of a cow, and build a city where she lay down. Having arrived among the Phœnicians, he was met by a cow, which conducted him through Bœotia to the place where Thebes was afterwards built. But when he was about to sacrifice his guide to Pallas, he sent two of his company to the fountain Dirce for water, where they were devoured by a serpent or dragon; upon which Cadmus slew the monster, and afterwards, by the advice of Pallas, sowed his teeth, when there sprang up a number of armed soldiers, who prepared to revenge the death of the serpent; but on his casting a stone among these upstart warriors, they turned their weapons against each other with such animosity, that only five survived

the combat, and this remnant assisted Cadmus in founding his new city. Afterwards, to recompense his labours, the gods gave him Harmonia, or Harmone, the daughter of Mars and Venus; and honoured his nuptials with presents, and peculiar marks of favour. But at length resigning Thebes to Pentheus, Cadmus and Harmone went to govern the Ecclelenses; and when they grew old they were transformed into serpents, or, as others say, sent to the Elysian fields in a chariot drawn by serpents.

CADMUS of Miletus, a celebrated Greek historian, was, according to Pliny, the first of the Greeks who wrote history in prose. He flourished about 550 before Christ.

CADRITES, a sort of Mahomedan friars, who once a week spend a great part of the night in turning round, holding each other's hands, and repeating incessantly the word *hai*, which signifies *living*, and is one of the attributes of God; during which one of them plays on a flute. They never cut their hair, nor cover their heads, and always go barefooted; they have also liberty to quit their convent when they please, and to marry.

CADSAND, an island on the coast of Dutch Flanders, situated at the mouth of the Scheldt, whereby the Dutch command the navigation of that river.

CADUCEUS, in antiquity, Mercury's rod or sceptre, being a wand entwisted by two serpents, borne by that deity as the ensign of his quality and office, and according to the fable, given him by Apollo for his seven-stringed harp. Wonderful properties are ascribed to this rod by the poets; as laying men asleep, raising the dead, and such like marvels. It was also used by the ancients as a symbol of peace and concord. The Romans sent to the Carthaginians a javelin and a caduceus, offering them their choice either of war or peace. Among that people, those who denounced war were called *feciales*; and those who went to demand peace, *caduceatores*, because they bore a caduceus in their hand. The caduceus found on medals is a common symbol, signifying good conduct, peace, and prosperity. The rod expresses power, the two serpents prudence, and the two wings diligence.

CADUS, in antiquity, a wine vessel of a certain capacity, containing eighty amphœre or firkins; each of which, according to the best accounts, held nine gallons.

CADUSII, in *Ancient Geography*, a people of Media Atropene, situated to the west, in the mountains, and reaching to the Caspian Sea; between whom and the Medes perpetual war and enmity continued down to the time of Cyrus.

CADUTINADA, a small district of Hindustan, in the province of Malabar. It is well cultivated, and is naturally a rich country, containing a large proportion of rice ground. But the grain which it produces is scarcely adequate to the support of its inhabitants; and a regular importation takes place from the southern parts of Malalaya, and from Mangalore. The plantations are numerous. The higher parts of the hills are overgrown with wood, which the Nairs formerly encouraged, as it afforded them protection against invaders. The female Nairs in this country, when children, go through the ceremony of marriage, which is, however, merely nominal, as the man and the wife never cohabit. When the girl attains to maturity, she is taken to live in the house of some other Nair. In 1761 a treaty was concluded by the Bombay government with the chief of this country, for the purchase of pepper.

CÆLIUS, AURELIANUS, an ancient physician, and the only one of the sect of the Methodists of whom we have any remains. He was a native of Sicca, a town of Numidia; but in what age he flourished cannot be determined; it is probable, however, that he lived before Galen; since, though he carefully mentions all the physicians before him,

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he takes no notice of Galen. He had read over very diligently the ancient physicians of all sects; and we are indebted to him for the knowledge of many dogmas which are not to be found but in his books *De celeribus et tardis Passionibus*. He wrote, as he himself tells us, several other works; but they have all perished.

CAEN, an arrondissement of the department Calvados, in France. Its extent is 450 square miles. It is divided into nine cantons, which are subdivided into 205 communes, containing 129,863 inhabitants.

CAEN, a city, the capital of the department of Calvados, and of the arrondissement of its own name, in France. It stands on a fine plain at the influx of the Odon into the navigable river Orne. The fortifications are in a dilapidated state. The ground plan of the city has the form of a horse shoe. It has some good places, and streets of moderate width, and the houses are of stone. The dwellings are 8000, and the inhabitants amount to 36,361. It is a manufacturing town, which produces silk and thread lace, a large quantity of hosiery, woollen, linen, and cotton goods, besides snuff, leather, porcelain, wax-candles, paper, parchment, and other articles. It has extensive fisheries on the sea, and some foreign ships repair to its harbour. There is also some internal trade up the river Orne. The city has some good institutions for education and for promoting a knowledge of the fine arts. It is situated in latitude 49. 11. 12. N. and longitude 0. 26. 58. W.

CAERE, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Etruria, the royal residence of Mezentius. Its ancient name was *Argyllæ*. In Strabo's time not the least vestige of it remained, except the baths called *caerana*. From this town the Roman censor's tables were called *caeris tabulae*.

CAERLEON, a market-town of the hundred of Usk, in Monmouthshire, 157 miles from London. Near it are some ruins designated by the people Arthur's Round Table. The market day is Thursday. The inhabitants amounted in 1801 to 667, in 1811 to 821, in 1821 to 1062, and in 1831 to 1071.

CAERMARTHEN, the capital town of the county of that name, in South Wales. It is situated in a beautiful valley on the river Towy, which is navigable to it. It is an ancient place, was once fortified, and is the best built town in the principality. In the reign of James I. it was incorporated as a town and county of itself. Near to it are some iron and tin works; but the commerce is inconsiderable for the population, who, in some measure, derive their occupation from its being a kind of capital for Wales, as relates to the Stannary courts and the great sessions. There are markets on Wednesday and Saturday. It confers the title of Marquis on the Duke of Leeds. The inhabitants amounted in 1811 to 7275, in 1821 to 8906, and in 1831 to 9995.

CAERMARTHENSHIRE, a county in South Wales, containing 936 square miles, or about 590,640 acres. The northern and eastern parts are mountainous. Near the sea the land is flat, but the general surface of the county is hilly. It is intersected in almost every direction by valleys, from the sides of which the hills rise abruptly. These valleys are, for the most part, very narrow. The most celebrated for fertility and picturesque beauty, as well as the most extensive, is the vale of Towy, which stretches thirty miles up the county, with a breadth of only two miles. From the celebrated Grongar Hill, and the ruins of the Castle of Dynevor, the picturesque beauties of this vale are seen to the greatest advantage.

The principal rivers in Caermarthenshire are the Towy, the Teivy or Tair, the Cothy, the Dulas, and the Gwilly. The Towy rises in Cardiganshire. It enters Caermarthenshire at its north-eastern corner, crossing towards the south-west, and, passing Caermarthen, it empties itself

into the large bay between the counties of Glamorgan and Pembroke, called Caermarthens Bay. Many rivulets join the Towy in its course, among which is the Cothy. This stream rises on the north side of the county, and, running mostly in a southern direction, unites with the Towy about six miles above Caermarthens. The Teivy rises in Cardiganshire, between which county and Caermarthenshire it afterwards forms the boundary: soon after receiving the Kech, it enters the county of Pembroke.

The principal ports in this county are Llanelly, Kidwelly, Caermarthen, and Laugharne. Llanelly has a good port for vessels of ten feet draught, formed by an inlet of the sea called Burry River, which divides this county and Glamorganshire. Llanelly is the port of entry of Kidwelly and Caermarthen: its exports are coal and tinned iron plates. Kidwelly is situated on two small streams called Givandraeth, which form a little haven, but mostly choked with sand. From this town a canal has been cut, at the expense of a private gentleman, between three and four miles long, to his coal-mines and lime-quarries; and by means of this canal Kidwelly has been enabled to export a considerable quantity of coals. Vessels of 250 tons burden ascend to the bridge of the town of Caermarthen on the Towy, but the entrance of the river is rather difficult, in consequence of a bar across it. The principal exports of Caermarthen are tin plates and cast iron. Laugharne, on a creek, is chiefly remarkable for a considerable flat tract in the vicinity, embanked from the sea, and of singular fertility.

The climate of this county is soft and mild, but moist; the soil of the lower districts is fertile, being for the most part either a rich clay or a sharp or deep loam. Little wheat is grown; and, except on the lighter soils, barley is not a common crop; but oats are extensively cultivated, and, in respect both of produce and quality, are a very profitable crop. Great quantities are exported, chiefly to Bristol. The pasture lands, especially where the soil is suitable, support a heavy stock; they are applied either to the dairy or to the breeding of black-cattle and horses. The latter are reared in great numbers on the hills, and constitute the principal article of trade at the fairs of this and the adjacent counties. Much butter is exported. It is computed that 115,000 acres are in tillage, and about double that number in pasture; the rest is unfit for cultivation, though by no means unprofitable. According to the original agricultural report of this county, there are only about 170,000 acres of wastes and commons. This county was formerly extremely well wooded; but of late years great waste has been made of the timber. Its rivers and sea-coast abound in fish, especially salmon of excellent quality, and a species of trout, called *asus*, in high request with epicures.

Caermarthenshire is rich in mineral productions. Coals and lead are the most abundant and profitable. The greatest lead-mines are not far from Llandowry. Limestone also abounds, and there are considerable quantities of iron ore. The sands in the vicinity of Laugharne, according to Mr Donovan, abound in shells of great rarity and beauty. On the road from Caermarthen to Llandillo Yawr a medicinal spring has lately been discovered, containing carbonic acid gas, carbonate of iron and lime, muriate of soda and lime, and sulphate of lime. At Kastell-Karreg there is a fountain which ebbs and flows twice in twenty-four hours. There are several remains of antiquity, chiefly Roman, to be seen in Caermarthenshire.

The inhabitants who are not engaged in agriculture are principally employed in working the mines, in manufacturing the produce of these mines, and in making woollen stockings. The most extensive manufactures of tinned iron plates are carried on at Kidwelly, where are also other

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Caernarvon manufactures of iron, for which there are large and excellent furnaces, forges, flattening-mills, &c. Tinned plates and cast iron are also manufactured at Caernarvon, and the works in both branches are extensive. In the neighbourhood of Llandowry the woollen-stocking manufactory principally prevails.

The money raised for the maintenance of the poor in 1803 was £17,046, at the rate of 12s. 9d. in the pound. In the year ending the 25th of March 1815, there was

paid, in parochial rates, the sum of £30,354. 6s. 9½d. Caernarvonshire. from eighty-three parishes alone, the remaining forty-three not having made any return. By the population returns in the year 1800 there were 13,449 inhabited houses, 67,317 inhabitants, 31,439 males, and 35,878 females; of this number 32,862 were returned as employed in agriculture, and 4343 as employed in trade. The following are the results of the population returns in 1811, 1821, and 1831.

YEAR.	HOUSES.			OCCUPATIONS.			PERSONS.		
	Inhabited.	By how many Families occupied.	Uninhabited.	Families chiefly employed in Agriculture.	Families chiefly employed in Trade, Manufactures, or Handicraft.	All other Families not comprised in the two preceding classes.	Males.	Females.	Total of Persons.
1811	14,856	16,083	333	9,878	5256	949	36,080	41,137	77,217
1821	16,402	18,392	333	9,628	4823	3941	43,577	46,662	90,239
1831	*****	*****	*****	*****	*****	*****	*****	*****	100,800

CAERNARVON, the capital of the county of that name in South Wales. It is a very ancient town; and the castle, in which the first prince of Wales was born, is in better preservation than any other of the ancient edifices of that kind and age in the kingdom. The town, which is on the entrance of the Menai Strait, is finely situated, commanding a view of Anglesey and the mountain Snowdon. The principal trade to its port is for slate, which is found in abundance near it. A market is held on Saturday, and is well attended. The population amounted in 1811 to 4595, in 1821 to 5788, and in 1831 to 7642.

CAERNARVONSHIRE, a county in North Wales, is divided by the Conway from Denbighshire, from part of Merionethshire by a rivulet, from Anglesey by the Straits of Menai; and the residue is bounded by the sea. In figure it is very irregular, a great peninsulated point running out from it to the south-west. From the extremity of this point the length is forty-five miles; the breadth varies extremely; its circumference is about 150 miles. According to a late survey, it contains 300,000 acres of land, of which, by one account, about 200,000, and, by another account, only 160,000, are in a state of cultivation.

This county is the most mountainous in Wales. Its central part is entirely occupied by Snowdon, and its subordinate mountains extend from near Conway in the north-east to the shore that bounds the Perithorian road, including the Rhifel ridges. The Snowdon Mountains are connected with another chain of hills, which approach the sea at Aberdaron. Among these are very deep passes, forming narrow valleys, through which numerous streams, issuing from various lakes, rush in some places with great violence. The highest region of the mountainous district is covered with snow during the greater part of the year; the middle region affords fuel and pasturage, though the woods which once clothed it are nearly exhausted. The bases of the mountains, and the valleys, are in general temperate and fertile. The vale of Conway is the most extensive in the county; it is a long and narrow tract, equally romantic and beautiful, through which the river of the same name runs. At first it is very narrow, but it gradually widens to the breadth of a mile. Its extent is about twenty miles, terminating at the town of Conway. It affords rich pasturage, especially near Llanwrst, where it is formed into the finest meadows, corn-fields, and groves, and exhibits a striking and pleas-

ing contrast to the bleak regions of Snowdon frowning above it.

The general escarpment of the mountains, which rise from the sea towards the centre of this county, fronts the sea; but the particular escarpment of the detached groups depends upon the course of the streams. The mountain of Snowdon is composed of various cliffs of different heights; the altitude of the highest point of the mountain is about 3600 feet from the high-water mark on Caernarvon quay. Snow lies all the year in the hollows near the top of Snowdon, the temperature here being very low, even in the middle of summer. On the morning of the 24th of July 1795, just after sunrise, Mr. Aikin observed the thermometer at 34, whereas in the vale of Beddgelert, at seven in the morning, it was at 62; at one in the afternoon it had reached only forty-eight on the top of Snowdon.

The principal rivers in Caernarvonshire are the Conway and the Seiont. The first rises from a lake on the confines of Denbigh, Merioneth, and Caernarvon. Its course is nearly in a northerly direction, along the east side of the county, for about twenty-four miles, when it empties itself into the sea at the town of the same name; it is half a mile wide at the Tash at high water, and not above fifty yards at low, the remaining space being sand-banks, which at high water are covered to the depth of twelve feet. These sands still abound in the pearl muscle, as they did in the time of the Romans; but they have been long neglected. The Conway is navigable for about twelve miles. The Seiont rises from a lake near Snowdon; its course is westward, and it runs into the Menai Strait at Caernarvon. The bar admits vessels of about 300 tons into the haven.

The sea-coast of this county presents many objects worthy of notice. Traeth Bach and Traeth Mawr are two inlets of the sea having one entrance, and each receiving a little river. The greater part of them are dry at low-water, and become quicksands. They lie between Caernarvonshire and Merionethshire, but as they seem more properly to belong to the latter county, the attempts of Mr Maddocks to embank the sands of Traeth Mawr will more properly be noticed under Merionethshire. Passing from this county into Caernarvonshire, the first sea-port is Pwllheli, on an inlet which receives three or four rivulets. It has a considerable coasting trade in small vessels. St Tudwell's bay is sheltered by two small islands. To it succeeds the bay named Hell's Mouth, from the

Caernarvonshire. height and form of the shores, which cause the wind to blow continually into it, while there is also a constant indraught of the current. The promontory of Lyn extends to the west of the mass of mountains that occupy the space between the west entrance of the Menai and Tŷneth Mawr. At the extremity of this promontory lies the Isle of Bardsey, two miles long and one mile broad. The tides run with great rapidity between this island and the promontory. The gulf between the peninsulated hundred of Lyn and Anglesey is called the bay of Caernarvon. It is lined by the high ridge of Snowdon. The only port on this coast is Porthyn Lyn, formed by a long point of land jutting into the sea, and sheltering a cove on the west. Port Penryn, on a small rivulet, has been recently enlarged into a haven for vessels of 300 or 400 tons; and by it are exported immense quantities of slate, from Lord Penryn's estate in this county, to the amount of 500 tons a week when the demand is great. About seven miles to the west-south-west of Conway, on the road from that town to Bangor, is the stupendous precipice of Penmaen Mawr, the last of the long Caernarvon chain. It is 1400 feet perpendicular from its base, and according to Mr Caswell, who was employed by Mr Flamstead the astronomer to measure it, 1545 feet above the beach at low water. In 1772 application was made to parliament to improve and secure the road across this precipice, which was accordingly done; and there is now a good road on a ledge of the rock, defended by a wall five feet high. The county of Caernarvon is terminated by the lofty round promontory called Llandudno, or the Great Orme's Head, on the east of the Conway river. It is a fine sheep-walk, ending in a steep precipice over the sea, which is hollowed into various inaccessible caverns.

In consequence of the elevated surface of the greater part of the county, and its cold, piercing, and damp atmosphere, there is little corn grown in it. Near the sea, however, and in some of the vales, barley of fine quality is raised; and, in some of the higher districts, oats are cultivated. The vales yield a little meadow grass for hay, which is got in without the aid of wheel-carriages, the uneven surface of the ground not admitting their use. Sheep and black cattle, however, constitute the principal agricultural stock of the Caernarvonshire farmers. The former are pastured on the mountains, which in general are commons; and the latter on the lower grounds. A considerable quantity of cheese, made from the mixed milk of ewes and cows, is made. From the peninsulated hundred of Lyn, which is in general flat, oats, barley, cheese, and black cattle are exported; of the last about 3000 annually. The numerous herds of goats which used to frequent the rocky districts of this county are now nearly extinct. There are some profitable orchards in the vales, but in general the climate is very unfavourable to fruit trees.

Caernarvonshire is an interesting county to the mineralogist; but we can only notice very briefly the principal features of its mineralogy. The highest and interior re-

gions of the Snowdon Mountains are composed of granite, porphyry, whin, and other primitive aggregate rocks, inclosing considerable blocks of quartz. The western side of Snowdon itself consists of ironstone, on which are placed basaltic columns of different lengths, and about four feet in diameter. On each side of the primitive rocks there are mountainous banks of slate, the coarsest on the eastern, and the finest invariably on the western side of the central ridge. At Nantfrancoen are the slate quarries of Lord Penryn, who has constructed admirable railways from them to Port Penryn. The banks of slate, becoming finer as they descend, occupy the country between Snowdon and the Menai, usually terminating within a few hundred yards of its banks. The channel of the Shast, as well as its banks, consists of limestone; breccia, or the fragments of the Snowdon Mountains in a calcareous cement; and hard marl, inclosing shells. The general dip of the strata in the promontory of Lyn is to the south-west; on the north coast are found chlorite slate and coarse serpentine. On the former rest beds of primitive argillaceous schist. The argillaceous schistus in some places is largely mixed with carbon, forming a kind of hard drawing slate; and in others it is penetrated by carbon and pyrites, forming alum slate. No mines have been opened in this district. A hard stone, used instead of brass for supporting the pivots of light machinery, and another stone something resembling the French burr, have been found in this county. There are some lead mines near Gwydir; but the most important and valuable metal found in this county is copper. The richest mines of it are in the vicinity of Llanberis; it is also found in various parts of the Snowdon Mountains; and the green carbonate of copper lies between the limestone strata, in the promontory of Orme's Head. There are also mines of calamine on the Caernarvon side of the river Conway.

Many rare vegetables, met with only on the most elevated spots, grow in this county. Some of the steepest crags of the Great Orme's Head are inhabited by the peregrine falcon. Considerable quantities of fish, particularly herrings, are caught on the shores of this county; and lobsters and oysters are met with in great abundance. In some of the lakes are found the char, and the gwyniad, another alpine fish. Foxes are the chief wild animals.

The money raised for the poor in 1803 was £.9137, being at the rate of 4s. 4d. in the pound. In the year ending the 25th of March 1815, there was paid in parochial rates the sum of £.15,776. 17s. 6d. In 1800 there were 8304 inhabited houses, and 41,521 inhabitants; 19,586 males, and 21,935 females, of whom 12,808 were employed in agriculture, and 4234 in manufactures, trade, and handicrafts. The inhabitants live in a state of the utmost simplicity, manufacturing their clothes from the wool of their own flocks, and dyeing them with lichens; while a little oatmeal added to the produce of their dairies constitutes their food. In 1811, 1821, and 1831, the results of the population returns were as follows:

YEARS.	HOUSES.			OCCUPATIONS.			PERSONS.		
	Inhabited.	By how many Families occupied.	Uninhabited.	Families chiefly employed in Agriculture.	Families chiefly employed in Trade, Manufactures, or Handicraft.	All other Families not comprised in the two preceding classes.	Males.	Females.	Total Persons.
1811	9,369	10,187	154	6667	2687	833	23,379	25,951	49,336
1821	10,932	11,478	295	6890	2649	1939	28,412	29,546	57,958
1831	66,300

Caerwys
Caepl-
nus.

CAERWYS, a market-town in the hundred of Rhyddlan, in Flintshire, North Wales, five miles from St Asaph and 212 from London. The market is held on Tuesday, and is much frequented. The inhabitants amounted in 1801 to 773, in 1811 to 822, and in 1821 to 952.

CÆSALPINUS, ANDREW, one of those great and daring geniuses who, contending with the mists of a dark age, elicit the most brilliant truths on the one hand, whilst they sometimes wander into great absurdities on the other, was born at Arezzo in Tuscany in 1519. Of his family nothing is recorded, nor does he appear to have left any progeny, or to have been ever married. Devoted to the studies of physic and natural philosophy, he attained at length the honour of being physician to Pope Clement VIII., during the chief part of whose pontificate, from 1592 till his own death in 1603, at the age of eighty-four, Cæsalpinus lived at Rome, in the highest credit and celebrity; for which, as we trace the circumstances of his history, and inquire into his opinions, it seems at first sight difficult to account. Eminent talents have seldom proved a shield against persecution. On the contrary, by adding fear to its malice, they have generally tended to exasperate its fury. How then could Cæsalpinus, a professed Aristotelian, and an open unbeliever of revealed religion, whose opinions nearly approached those of Spinoza, exist in the holy court of Rome, which was then beginning to persecute the immortal Galileo? This mystery will but too readily unravel itself.

Cæsalpinus seems to have been furnished with two distinct philosophical intellects, which, like a good and evil genius, directed him by turns. Under the influence of the one he discovered the circulation of the blood, the sexes of plants, and the only true principles of botanical classification; under the guidance of the other he became entangled in the metaphysics of the schools, the dreams of Aristotle, and a philosophic contempt for every thing, good or bad, connected with the nonsense he was obliged publicly to respect. It is scarcely necessary to remind the reader, that, however brilliant the reign of literature and taste in the golden age of Leo X. and the times which immediately succeeded, true science and experimental philosophy were as yet in the cradle. In this respect the time of Cæsalpinus was "dark as Erebus," and the light he struck out was altogether his own.

We have no account of this great man till we find him seated in the botanical chair of the University of Pisa, where also he studied, if he did not teach, anatomy and medicine. His first publication was entitled *Speculum Artis Medicæ Hypocreticum*, in which it was too much to expect he should have released himself from the shackles of his venerable guide; but he has left evident proofs, in a passage often quoted, of his having a clear idea of the circulation of the blood, at least through the lungs. In botany his inquiries were conducted on a more original plan, and their result was one of the most philosophical works in that science, which issued from the press at Florence in 1583, in one volume quarto. The title-page runs thus: *De Plantis libri XVI. Andrea Cæsalpini Aretini, Medici clarissimi doctissimique, atque Philosophi celeberrimi ac subtilissimi*; yet he appears to have been himself the editor of the work, to which is prefixed, in his own name, an elegant and learned epistle dedicatory to Francis de' Medici, grand duke of Tuscany. This book, now rarely to be met with, is not only the unacknowledged source from which various subsequent writers, and especially Morison, derived their ideas of botanical arrangement; but it was a mine of science to which Linnaeus himself gratefully avowed his obligations. His own copy evinces the great assiduity with which he studied the book. He has laboured throughout to remedy the defect of which Haller com-

plaints, of the want of synonyms; and has subjoined his own generic names to nearly every species. He has particularly indicated those remarkable passages, in pages 13 and 15, where the germination of plants and their sexual distinctions are explained. In the former we trace the first rudiments of a natural classification of plants by the differences in their cotyledons; or, in other words, we find the origin of the natural systems of Linnaeus and Jussieu: in the latter passage we detect the fundamental principle of the Linnæan artificial system. Nor were these merely incidental suggestions of the illustrious author. He has pursued his inquiries to a conclusion on which the existence of botany as a science depends, and which the no less eminent Conrad Gesner detected about the same time, though his ideas respecting it were not then made public. The principle to which we allude is the classification of plants by their parts of fructification alone.

This was afterwards extended, by the greatest writers on the subject, as Ray and Tournefort, and more completely by Linnaeus, to the discrimination of their genera by the same parts, more particularly considered and contrasted. To this more extensive conclusion, indeed, the principle of Cæsalpinus directly and inevitably leads. He pursued it himself to such a length, as to develop some of the most important characters for generic distinctions, such as the flower being superior or inferior with respect to the fruit; the heart of the seed situated at its summit or base; the seeds, or the cells of the seed-vessels, solitary or otherwise; the partitions of certain pericarps parallel or contrary to their valves. Linnaeus remarks that this author, though the first systematic botanist, found out as many natural classes, or orders, as any of his followers. He did not indeed define well the philosophical limits of genera in the vegetable kingdom, and therefore his work cannot be regularly quoted throughout for generic synonyms. The want of plates of his own, and of references to other authors, render, as we have already hinted, some of his names and descriptions unintelligible. Yet Linnaeus has in manuscript filled up many blanks which he had been obliged to leave in his own *Classes Plantarum*, where the system of Cæsalpinus first assumed a synoptical form. This author might probably have adopted a more clear and methodical mode of arranging and explaining the botanical part of his subject, had he not had in view the vague and decautory manner of Pliny, whom he closely imitates in the materials of his numerous chapters, as well as in his style of description. A small and unimportant *Appendix* to this work, of nineteen pages, appeared at Rome in 1603, which is of very rare occurrence, but may be found reprinted in Boccione's *Museo di Pianta Rore*, p. 125.

Cæsalpinus printed at Rome, in 1596, a quarto volume of above two hundred pages, entitled *De Medicis*, dedicated to Pope Clement VIII., which, like his botanical publications, is now extremely rare. In the philosophy of this work Aristotle is his guide; in its method and composition, Pliny. A prefatory address to the pope declares it to have been undertaken in opposition to a certain treatise on the same subject, which, though written with diligence and elegance, contained many things inconsistent with the principles of philosophy, and subversive of the peripatetic doctrines; and with the author of which, as being excommunicated by the holy church of Rome, no measures were to be kept.

In our author's *Questionum Peripateticarum libri quinque*, published at Rome in 1603, it appears that he scrupled not to stand forth as an open defender of the Aristotelian philosophy, without any concealment of his own peculiar opinions and hypotheses derived from thence. By these he incurred the charge of atheism, preferred by a physician

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named Taurel, who, punning on the name of his antagonist, entitled his book *Alpes cæsa, hoc est, Andree Cæsalpini monstruosa dogmata discussa et excussa*. This attack, however, met with little or no countenance; and the learned Aristotelian died in the course of the year, receiving, no doubt, in the very focus of sanctity itself, the funeral honours due to an orthodox physician of his holiness.

Of the medical publications of Cæsalpinus, entitled *Prælia Universæ Medicinæ, and De Medicamentorum Facultatibus*, we have had no opportunity of forming an opinion for ourselves. By what is to be gathered from his other writings, his ideas of the medical qualities of plants and fossils seem adopted from ancient writers rather than from any considerable portion of actual experiment. Like other physicians of his time, he was too much occupied in ascertaining the articles of the *materia medica*, to find leisure for doubt, or for practical inquiry, respecting the truth of their reputed virtues. He did, however, promulgate some original ideas relative to the investigation of the properties of plants by their taste and smell. With botany he was not only theoretically but practically conversant. He left behind him a collection of above 760 dried specimens, one of the earliest upon record, which is said to have come into the hands of Micheli, and therefore is doubtless still preserved in the museum of Dr Targioni Tozzetti at Florence. A catalogue of this venerable herbarium is reported to have been prepared for the press, but we do not find that it ever appeared.

Cæsalpinus having been settled at Pisa when the great Galileo first presumed to doubt the infallibility of the Aristotelian philosophy, and, most likely, when that rising character became, at the age of twenty-six, professor of mathematics in the same university, we cannot presume him to have been free from the party-spirit which so disgracefully manifested itself there. He must have concurred in the measures which his own associates, leagued with the ruling powers, thought proper to adopt. The ancient school philosophy, derived from the Peripatetics, whether it was considered as a mere abstract speculation, or whether, as being equally absurd and unintelligible with the orthodox establishment, it did not excite alarm, was, as every body knows, allowed to go on very lovingly with that establishment; nor did it, in general, raise any more suspicion than the heathen mythology, studied and exemplified in the same and other schools. But when a spirit of truth and inquiry arose, when principles and opinions were to be submitted to the tests of reason and experiment, the same fatal results which the preceding age had witnessed in what was called religion, were justly apprehended for what was now with scarcely more propriety denominated philosophy. Hence the papal authority, which had suffered shipwreck in the one case, wanting the wisdom to avoid a similar disgrace in the other, gladly clung for support to any ally. These two celebrated occasions, the divorce of Henry VIII. and the base persecution of Galileo, are almost the only ones in which the authority of the pope has been exerted about any matter that human reason could determine, or that much signified, except to his own immediate dependents, how it might be determined. It is a memorable fact, that his decision was no less just in one case than unjust in the other; yet both proved equally ruinous, the former to his power, the latter to his credit. So hazardous is the exercise of usurped or overstrained authority, and so infallibly, thanks to the Author of all Good, do truth and justice rise, with renovated vigour, from such contests.

By this view of our subject the mystery above alluded to becomes clearly unravelled. Cæsalpinus, though a known heretic and infidel, professing to be an obedient son, and even a champion, of the church, tried to rise by

the ruin of equally learned and more honest men than himself. On the side on which he was absurd and censurable, and on that side only, he was unjust and unprincipled; nor is such a character uncommon. Where he exercised his unbiassed judgment, and honestly sought for truth, he, like Galileo, enlarged the bounds of human knowledge, and made discoveries which will for ever claim the gratitude and admiration of mankind. (x. x.)

CÆSAR, JULIUS, the illustrious Roman general and military historian, was of the family of the Julii, who pretended they were descended from Venus by Æneas. The descendants of Æscanius, sons of Æneas and Cræusa, and surnamed Julius, lived in Alba till that city was ruined by Tullus Hostilius, king of Rome, who carried them to Rome, where they afterwards flourished. We do not find the tribe they produced more than two branches. The first bore the name of Tullus, the other that of Cæsar. The most ancient of the Cæsars were those who held public employments in the eleventh year of the first Punic war. After that time some of the family always enjoyed public offices in the commonwealth, till the time of Caius Julius Cæsar, the subject of this article. He was born at Rome the 12th of the month Quintilis, in the year of the city 653, and lost his father in 669. By his valour and eloquence he soon acquired the highest reputation both in the field and in the senate. Beloved and respected by his fellow-citizens, he enjoyed successively every magistracy and military honour the republic could bestow consistently with its own free constitution. But at length having subdued Pompey, the great rival of his growing power, his boundless ambition effaced the glory of his former actions. For, pursuing his favourite maxim, that he had rather be the first man in a village than the second in Rome, he caused himself to be chosen perpetual dictator; and, not content with this unconstitutional power, his faction had resolved to raise him to the imperial dignity; when the friends of the civil liberties of the republic rashly assassinated him in the senate-house, instead of seizing and bringing him to a legal trial for usurpation. By this impolitic measure they defeated their own purpose; involved the city in consternation and terror, which produced general anarchy; and paved the way for the revolution which they wished to prevent, the monarchical government being absolutely founded on the murder of Julius Cæsar. He fell in the fifty-sixth year of his age, and the forty-third before the Christian era. His *Commentaries* contain a history of his principal voyages, battles, and victories. The London edition in 1712, in folio, is preferred. See *ROME*.

CÆSAR, in *Roman Antiquity*, a title borne by all the emperors, from the time of Julius Cæsar till the destruction of the empire. It was also used as a title of distinction for the intended or presumptive heir of the empire, as *King of the Romans* was latterly used for that of the German empire.

This title took its rise from the surname of C. Julius Cæsar, which, by a decree of the senate, all the succeeding emperors were to bear. Under his successor, the appellation of *Augustus* being appropriated to the emperors, in compliment to the prince of that name, the title *Cæsar* was given to the second person in the empire, though still it continued to be given to the first; and hence the difference betwixt Cæsar used simply, and Cæsar with the addition of *Imperator Augustus*.

The dignity of Cæsar remained to the second of the empire, till Alexius Comnenus having elected Nicephorus Melissenus Cæsar by contract, and it being necessary to confer some higher dignity on his own brother Isaacus, he created him Sebastocrator, with the precedence over Melissenus; ordering, that in all acclamations, Isaacus

Cæsar.

Cæsar
Cæsar
Cæsar

Sebastocrator should be named the second, and Melissenus Cæsar the third.

CÆSAR, Sir Julius, a learned civilian, was descended by the female line from the Duke de Cæsari in Italy, and was born near Tottenham in Middlesex in the year 1557. He was educated at Oxford, and afterwards studied in the university of Paris, where, in the year 1581, he was created doctor of the civil law, and two years afterwards was admitted to the same degree at Oxford, and also became doctor of the canon law. He was advanced to many honourable employments, and for the last twenty years of his life was master of the rolls. He was remarkable for his extensive bounty and charity to all persons of worth, so that he seemed to be the almoner-general of the nation. He died in 1639, in the seventy-ninth year of his age. It is very remarkable that the manuscripts of this lawyer were offered, by the executors of some of his descendants, to a cheesemonger as waste paper; but being timely inspected by Mr Samuel Paterson, this gentleman discovered their value, and had the satisfaction to find his judgment confirmed by the profession, to whom they were sold in lots, for upwards of £500, in the year 1757.

CÆSAREA, an ancient city of Palestine, of great celebrity, but now in ruins, and entirely deserted. It is situated on the sea-coast, and had an extraordinary harbour, which, according to Josephus, was constructed by Herod. Louis IX. of France is said to have rebuilt its walls during the holy wars. The adjacent ground is covered to a great extent with numerous and magnificent remains of antiquity. When this country was visited by Pococke, Cæsarea was inhabited by a few families; but at the time it was visited by Dr Clarke it was quite deserted. It is 36 miles from Acre, and 62 from Jerusalem.

CÆSAREAN OPERATION. See MIDWIFERY.

CÆSARIANS, Cæsarienses, in *Roman Antiquity*, were officers or ministers of the Roman emperors. They kept the account of the revenues of the emperors, and took possession in their name of such things as devolved or were confiscated to them.

CÆSONES, a denomination given to those cut out of their mothers' wombs. Pliny ranks this as an auspicious kind of birth; the elder Scipio Africanus, and the first of the family of the Cæsars, were brought into the world in this way.

CÆSTUS, in *Antiquity*, a large gauntlet made of raw hide, which the wrestlers made use of when they fought at the public games. This was a kind of leathern strap, strengthened with lead or plates of iron, which encompassed the hand, the wrist, and a part of the arm, as well to defend these parts as to enforce their blows.

CÆSTUS, or Cæstum, was also a kind of girdle, made of wood, which the husband untied for his spouse the first day of marriage.

CÆSURA, in the ancient poetry, is when, in the scanning of a verse, a word is divided, so that one part seems cut off, and goes to a different foot from the rest.

CÆSURA, in the modern poetry, denotes a rest or pause towards the middle of an Alexandrine verse, by which the voice and pronunciation are aided, and the verse as it were divided into two hemistichs.

CÆTERIS PARIBUS, a Latin term in frequent use among mathematical and physical writers. The words literally signify *the rest, or other things, being alike or equal*. Thus we say, the heavier the bullet, *cæteris paribus*, the greater the range; that is, by how much the bullet is heavier, if the length and diameter of the piece and strength of the powder be the same, by so much will the utmost range or distance of a piece of ordnance be the greater. Thus also, in a physical way, we say, the velo-

city and quantity circulating in a given time through any section of an artery, will, *cæteris paribus*, be according to its diameter, and nearness to or distance from the heart.

CAFFA, in commerce, painted cotton cloths manufactured in the East Indies, and sold at Bengal.

CAFFA, KAFFA, or KJEFFA, a town of European Russia, in the Crimea, and at one time the largest and most important place in that peninsula. It is pleasantly situated at the end of a large bay on the northern shore of the Black Sea, and is defended by two forts. The harbour, although capacious, is shallow, and little sheltered from the south-east winds. This town has repeatedly changed masters, but it was finally incorporated with the Russian empire in 1783. Its trade consists principally in stuffs of Turkish manufacture, and in wine, rice, and coffee. Long. 35. 12. 45. E. Lat. 45. 6. 30. N.

CAFFILA, a company of merchants or travellers, who join together in order to go with more security through various countries on the continent of the East Indies, and also Africa.

The *caffila* differs from a caravan, at least in Persia; for the *caffila* properly belongs to some sovereign, or to some powerful company in Europe; whereas a caravan is a company of particular merchants, each trading upon his own account. There are also such *caffilas* which cross some parts of the deserts of Africa, particularly that called the Sahara.

CAGANUS, or CACANUS, an appellation anciently given by the Huns to their kings. The word appears also to have been formerly applied to the princes of Muscovy, now called *cæsar*. From the same also, probably, the Tartar title *chan* or *khan* had its origin.

CAGAYAN SOOLOO, an island in the Eastern Seas, about twenty miles in circumference, of a rich soil, and of luxuriant aspect. It has a good harbour on the north side, with a bar which admits vessels of fifteen feet water. The island is governed by a rajah dependent on Sooloo. Long. 118. 36. E. Lat. 7. N.

CAGE, an inclosure made of wire, wicker, or the like, interwoven lattice-wise, for the confinement of birds or wild beasts. The word is French, *cage*, formed from the Italian *gaggia*, of the Latin *cæva*, which has the same signification: *a cævis theatralibus in quibus includebantur fera*.

Beasts were usually brought to Rome shut up in oak or beechen cages artfully formed, and covered or shaded with boughs, that the creatures, deceived with the appearance of a wood, might fancy themselves in their forest. The fiercer sorts were pent in iron cages, lest wooden prisons might be broken through. In some prisons there are iron cages for the closer confinement of criminals.

CAGES (cævæ) denote also places in the ancient amphitheatres, wherein wild beasts were kept, ready to be let out for sport. The *cævæ* were a sort of iron cages, different from dens, which were under ground and dark; and being airy and light, the beasts rushed out of them with more alacrity and fierceness than if they had been pent up under ground.

CAGGIANO, a city of Italy, in the province Principato-Citeriore of the kingdom of Naples, with 2777 inhabitants.

CAGLIARI, the capital of the island of Sardinia, as well as of the province of the same name. It stands on the gulf of that name, and contains thirty churches, about 5000 houses, and 25,880 inhabitants. It is the residence of the viceroy, of an archbishop, and the place of assembling of the boards of administration and of the courts of justice. It has little commerce, which is chiefly confined to the sale of wine, corn, cheese, and especially of salt refined near it. Long. 9. 0. 25. E. Lat. 39. 15. 20. N.

Caffi
Cagliari

Caigliari
Caille.

CAGLIARI, *Capo Di*, one of the provinces into which the island of Sardinia is divided.

CAGLIARI, *Paolo*, called *Paolo Veronese*, an excellent painter, was born at Verona in the year 1532. Gabriel Cagliari, his father, was a sculptor, and Antonio Badile, his uncle, was his master in painting. He was not only esteemed the best of all the Lombard painters, but by reason of his extensive talents in the art was peculiarly styled *Il Pittor felice*, the happy painter; and there is scarcely a church in Venice where some of his performances are not to be seen. He died of a fever at Venice in 1588, and had a tomb and a statue of brass erected to his memory in the church of St. Sebastian.

CAGNANO, a town of Italy, in the Neapolitan province Capitanata, with 3477 inhabitants.

CAHORS, an arrondissement in the department of the Lot, in France. It extends over 865 square miles, and contains twelve cantons, divided into 136 communes, with 106,417 inhabitants. The chief place, from which the arrondissement takes its name, is on the right bank of the Lot, which forms almost a circle round it. It contains 1900 houses, and 11,728 inhabitants. There are in it manufactures of paper, cloths, lace, cassimere, and leather; and some trade in wine, brandy, nut-oil, and other productions, which is increasing. Long. 1. 21. 15. E. Lat. 44. 26. 49. N.

CAHUSAC, a town of France, in the department of the Tarn, on the river Verre, with 1424 inhabitants.

CAIAPHAS, high priest of the Jews after Simon, condemned Christ to death; and was deprived of his place by the emperor Vitellius, for which disgrace he made away with himself.

CAIFONG. See CHINA.

CAILLAC, an arrondissement of the department of the Tarn, in France, extending over 510 square miles. It is divided into eight cantons and eighty-four communes, and contains 63,736 inhabitants. The capital is a city of the same name, on the river Tarn, which is navigable to a certain extent. It has 1505 houses, and 6636 inhabitants. The chief trade consists in wine, which is produced of the best quality in the vicinity, and largely shipped from Bourdeaux to the most remote markets. Long. 1. 45. E. Lat. 43. 50. N.

CAILLE, NICHOLAS LOUIS DE LA, an eminent mathematician and astronomer, was born at a small town in the diocese of Rheims in 1713. His father had served in the army, which he quitted, and in his retirement studied mathematics, and amused himself with mechanic exercises, in which he proved the fortunate author of several inventions of considerable use to the public. Nicholas almost in his infancy took a fancy to mechanics, which proved of signal service to him in his maturer years. He was sent young to school at Mantes-sur-Seine, where he discovered early tokens of genius. In 1729 he repaired to Paris, where he studied the classics, philosophy, and mathematics; and he afterwards went to study divinity at the college de Navarre, proposing to embrace an ecclesiastical life. At the end of three years he was ordained as a deacon, and officiated as such in the church of the college de Mazarin several years; but he never entered into priest's orders, apprehending that his astronomical studies, to which he had become most assiduously devoted, might interfere too much with his religious duties. In 1739 he was conjoined with M. de Thury, son to M. Cassini, in verifying the meridian of the royal observatory throughout the whole extent of the kingdom of France. In the month of November the same year, whilst he was engaged day and night in the operations of which this grand undertaking required, and at a great distance from Paris, he was, without any solicitation, elected to the vacant mathematical chair which the

celebrated M. Varignon had so worthily filled. Here he began to teach about the end of 1740; and an observatory was ordered to be erected for his use in the college, and furnished with a suitable apparatus of the best instruments. In May 1741, M. de la Caille was admitted into the Royal Academy of Sciences as an adjoint member for astronomy. Besides many excellent papers dispersed through their Memoirs, he published elements of geometry, mechanics, optics, and astronomy. Moreover, he carefully computed all the eclipses of the sun and moon that had happened since the Christian era; which were printed in a book published by two Benedictines, entitled *L'Art de Verifier les Dates*, Paris, 1750, in 4to. Besides these, he compiled a volume of astronomical ephemerides for the years 1745 to 1755; another for the years 1755 to 1765; a third for the years 1765 to 1775; an excellent work entitled *Astronomia Fundamenta novissima Solis et Stellarum observationibus stabilita*; and the most correct solar tables which had ever appeared. Having performed a seven years' series of astronomical observations in his own observatory, he formed a project of going to observe the southern stars at the Cape of Good Hope. This was highly approved of by the academy, as well as by the prime minister Comte de Argenson, and very readily agreed to by the states of Holland. Upon this he drew up a plan of the method he intended to pursue in his southern observations; setting forth, that, besides settling the places of the fixed stars, he proposed to determine the parallaxes of the Moon, Mars, and Venus. But as this required contemporaneous observations to be made in the northern parts of the world, he sent to those of his correspondents who were expert in practical astronomy previous notice in print, what observations he designed to make at particular times for the above purpose. At length, on the 21st of November 1750, he sailed for the Cape, and arrived there on the 19th of April 1751. He forthwith got his instruments on shore; and, with the assistance of some Dutch artificers, set about building an astronomical observatory, in which his apparatus of instruments was properly disposed of as soon as the building was in a fit condition to receive them.

The sky at the Cape is generally pure and serene, unless when a south-east wind blows; but this is often the case; and when the wind in question blows, it is attended with some strange and striking effects. The stars look bigger, and seem to quiver; the moon has an undulating tremor; and the planets have beards like comets. Two hundred and twenty-eight nights did our astronomer survey the face of the southern heavens, during which space of time he observed more than 10,000 stars; and as the ancients had filled the heavens with monsters and old wives' tales, the Abbé de la Caille chose rather to adorn them with the instruments and machines which modern philosophy has made use of for the conquest of nature. With no less success did he attend to the parallaxes of the Moon, Mars, Venus, and the Sun. Having thus executed the purpose of his voyage, and no present opportunity offering for his return, he thought of employing the vacant time in another arduous attempt, which was no less than that of taking the measure of the earth, as he had already done that of the heavens. This indeed had, through the munificence of the French king, been done before by different sets of learned men, both in Europe and America, some determining the extent of a degree under the equator, and others its extent under the arctic circle; but it had not as yet been decided whether in the southern parallels of latitude the same dimensions obtained as in the northern. His labours, however, were rewarded with the satisfaction he wished for, having determined a distance of 410,814 feet from a place called Klip Fontyn to the Cape, by means of a base of 38,802 feet, ascertained by three actual measure-

Caille.

Caimacan: ments; and in this way he discovered a new secret of nature, namely, that the radii of the parallels in south latitude are not the same as those of the corresponding parallels in north latitude. About the twenty-third degree of south latitude he found a degree on the meridian to contain 342.292 Paris feet. He returned to Paris on the 27th of September 1754, having, in his almost four years' absence, expended no more than 9144 livres on himself and his companion; and at his coming into port he refused a bribe of 100,000 livres, offered by one who thirsted less after glory than gain, to share his immunity from custom-house searches.

After receiving the congratulatory visits of his more intimate friends and of the astronomers, he first of all employed himself in drawing up a reply to some strictures which Professor Euler had published relative to the meridian; and then he settled the results of the comparison of his own with the observations of other astronomers for the parallaxes. That of the sun he fixed at $9\frac{1}{2}$ ", that of the moon at $56' 56''$, that of Mars in his opposition at $36''$, that of Venus at $38''$. He also settled the laws by which astronomical refractions are varied in consequence of the different density or rarity of the air, owing to heat or cold and dryness or moisture. And, lastly, he showed an easy, and by common navigators practicable, method of finding the longitude at sea by means of the moon; which he illustrated by examples selected from his own observations during his voyages. His fame being now established upon a firm basis, the most celebrated academies of Europe claimed him as their own; and he was unanimously elected a member of the Royal Society at London, of the Institute of Bologna, of the Imperial Academy at Petersburg, and of the Royal Academies of Berlin, Stockholm, and Göttingen. In the year 1760, M. de la Caille was attacked with a severe fit of the gout, which, however, did not interrupt the course of his studies; for he then planned out a new and immense work, which was no less than the history of astronomy through all ages, with a comparison of the ancient and modern observations, and the construction and use of the instruments employed in making them. In order to pursue the task he had imposed upon himself in a suitable retirement, he obtained a grant of apartments in the royal palace of Vincennes; and whilst his astronomical apparatus was erecting there, he began printing his *Catalogue of the Southern Stars*, and the third volume of his *Ephemerides*. But towards the end of the year 1763, the state of his health became greatly reduced. His blood grew inflamed; he had pains of the head, obstructions of the kidneys, and loss of appetite, with a plethoric oppression on the whole system. His mind remained unaffected, and he resolutely persisted in his studies as usual. In the month of March medicines were administered to him, which rather aggravated than alleviated his symptoms; and he was now sensible, that the same distemper which in Africa, ten years before, had yielded to a few simple remedies, would in his native country bid defiance to the best physicians. This induced him to settle his affairs: his manuscripts he committed to the care and discretion of his esteemed friend M. Maraldi. It was at last determined that a vein should be opened; but this brought on an obstinate lethargy, of which he died, at the age of forty-nine.

CAIMACAN, or **KAIMACAN**, in Turkish affairs, a dignity of the Ottoman empire, answering to lieutenant, or rather deputy, amongst us. There are usually two caimacans, one residing at Constantinople as governor of the capital, and the other attending the grand vizir in quality of lieutenant, secretary of state, and first minister of his council, and giving audience to ambassadors. Sometimes there is a third caimacan, who attends the sultan, whom

he acquaints with any public disturbances, and receives his orders concerning them.

CAIMAN, or **CAYMAN ISLANDS**, three small islands situated fifty-five leagues north-north-west of Jamaica. The southernmost of these islands is called Great Caiman, and contains about 160 inhabitants, whose chief employment consists in fishing for turtle, with which they supply Porto Rical and other places. A considerable number of them are also employed as pilots.

CAIN, eldest son of Adam and Eve, killed his brother Abel, for which he was condemned by God to banishment and a vagabond state of life. Cain retired to the land of Nod on the east of Eden, and built a city, to which he gave the name of his son Enoch.

CAINITES, a sect of heretics in the second century, so called on account of their great respect for Cain. They pretended that the virtue which produced Abel was of an order inferior to that which had produced Cain, and that this was the reason why Cain had the victory over Abel and killed him; for they admitted a great number of genii, which they called *virtutes*, of different ranks and orders. They made profession of honouring those who carry in Scripture the most visible marks of reprobation, as the inhabitants of Sodom, Esau, Korah, Dathan, and Abiram. They had, in particular, a very great veneration for the traitor Judas, under the pretence that the death of Jesus Christ had saved mankind. They had also a forged gospel of Judas, to which they paid great respect.

CAIRNS, or **CAINNES**, the vulgar name of those heaps of stones which are to be seen in many parts of Britain, particularly in Scotland and in Wales. They are composed of stones of all dimensions, thrown together in a conical form, a flat stone crowning the apex. Various causes have been assigned by the learned for these heaps of stones. They have been supposed to be, in times of inauguration, the places where the chieftain elect stood to show himself to best advantage to the people; or the spots from which judgment was pronounced; or erections by the way-side in honour of Mercury; or fabrics formed in memory of some solemn compact, particularly when accompanied by standing pillars of stones; or sites destined for the celebration of certain religious ceremonies. Such might have been the reasons, in some instances, where the evidences of stone chests and urns are wanting; but these are so generally found that they seem to leave little doubt that the most usual purpose of the piles in question was to serve as sepulchral monuments. But even this destination might render them suitable to other, particularly religious, purposes, to which by their nature they might be supposed to give additional solemnity. According to Toland, indeed, fires were kindled on the tops of flat stones, at certain periods of the year, particularly on the eves of the 1st of May and the 1st of November, for the purpose of sacrificing; at which time all the people having extinguished their domestic hearths, rekindled them from the sacred fires of the cairns. In general, therefore, these accumulations appear to have been designed for the sepulchral protection of heroes and great men. The stone chests, the repositories of the urns and ashes, are lodged in the earth beneath; sometimes only one, sometimes more, are found thus deposited; and Mr Pennant mentions an instance of seventeen having been discovered under the same pile.

Cairns are of different sizes, some of them very large. Mr Pennant describes one in the island of Arran, as 114 feet over, and of a vast height. They may justly be supposed to have been proportioned in size to the rank of the person, or to his popularity. The people of a whole district assembled to show their respect to the deceased; and, by actively honouring his memory, soon accumulated

Cairns

Cairns

Cairo. heaps equal to those that astonish us at this time. But these honours were not merely those of the day; as long as the memory of the deceased endured, not a passenger journeyed by without adding a stone to the heap. They supposed it would be an honour to the dead, and acceptable to his manes. To this day there is a proverbial expression among the Highlanders referable to the old practice; and a suppliant will tell his patron, "I will add a stone to your cairn;" meaning, "when you are no more, I will do all possible honour to your memory."

Cairns are to be found in all parts of the island, in Cornwall, Wales, and everywhere in North Britain. They were in use among the northern nations; and Dahlberg, in his 323d plate, has given the figure of one. In Wales they are called *carnddau*; but the proverb taken from them there is not of the complimentary kind: *Karn ar dy ben*, "a cairn on your head," is a token of imprecation.

CAIRO, or GRAND CAIRO, the capital of Egypt, situated in a plain at the foot of a mountain, in long. 32. 0. E. lat. 30. 0. N. It was founded by Jawhar, a Moggrebin general, in the middle of the tenth century. He gave his new city the name of *Al Kahira*, or the Victorious. It became the residence of the caliphs of Egypt, and of consequence the capital of that country, which it has ever since continued to be. It is divided into the new and old cities, Old Cairo, on the eastern bank of the Nile, is now almost uninhabited. The new city, which is properly Cairo, is seated in a sandy plain about two miles and a half from the old city, and on the same side of the river. It is extended along the mountain on which the castle is built, having been removed hither, it is supposed, in order to be under its protection. Bulac may be called the port of Cairo, for it stands on the bank of the Nile, and all the grain and other commodities destined for Cairo are landed there. Some travellers have assigned to Cairo a most enormous magnitude, by taking in the old city and Bulac along with the new; the real circumference of the latter, however, is not above ten miles, but it is extremely populous. The first thing that strikes a traveller is the narrowness of the streets, and the gloomy appearance of the houses, built of mud walls, without any exterior windows. Besides, as the streets are unpaved, and always full of people, walking is very inconvenient, especially to strangers. The number of the inhabitants has never been ascertained with any precision. Volney thinks it may amount to 300,000; but some later travellers estimate it as high as 300,000 or 400,000. The houses are from one to two or three stories in height, and flat at the top, where the inhabitants take the air, and often sleep all night. Those of the more wealthy have a court in the inside; but the poorer classes reside in very little space.

There is a canal, called *khalis*, derived from the Nile, which runs along the city from one end to the other, with houses on either side, which makes a large street. It forms in its progress several small lakes, which are called *barks* in the language of the country. The principal of these, which is in the great square near the castle, is five hundred paces in diameter. The most elegant houses in the city are built on its banks; but being filled from the inundation of the Nile, it contains water only for a few months of the year, and during the others it appears covered with a glimmering verdure. When there is water sufficient, it is always full of gilded boats, barges, and barks, in which people of rank amuse themselves by sailing, especially in the evenings, at which time there are curious fire-works, and a variety of music.

New Cairo is surrounded with stone walls, on which are handsome battlements; and at the distance of every hundred paces there are very fine towers. The walls were never very lofty, and are in many places gone to ruin.

The fortified palace built by Saladin seven hundred years ago, on part of the famous mountain Mokattas, is the only place of defence in Cairo; and yet the Turks took no notice of its falling, inasmuch that it was becoming a heap of rubbish, till the present pasha gave it a thorough repair. The principal apartment in it was a magnificent hall, environed with twelve columns of granite, brought from the ruins of Alexandria, of a prodigious height and thickness, which sustained an open dome, under which Saladin distributed justice to his subjects; but in the repairs made upon the edifice it was judged necessary to demolish this part of it. From the palace the whole city of Cairo may be seen, and above thirty miles along the Nile, with the fruitful plains that lie near it, as well as the mosques, pyramids, villages, and gardens, with which these fields are covered. The present pasha, however, no longer resides there, but has removed to a still more splendid palace, which he has reared in the vicinity. It contains a pavilion two hundred and fifty feet by two hundred, each wall of which is adorned with colonnades of white marble. The pasha has founded a military college and other institutions, with the view of introducing European arts and improvements. The gates of Cairo are three, which are very magnificent. There are about three hundred public mosques in the city, some of which have six minarets. That of Sultan Hassan is the finest structure in modern Egypt, and is extremely light and elegant. There is in the neighbourhood an extensive necropolis, containing many splendid tombs, particularly one built by the pasha for his family, adorned with five spacious domes. The khans or caravanserais are numerous and large, with a court in the middle, like the houses of the people. Some of them are several stories high, and are always full of people and merchandise. Cairo is a great centre of the trade of interior Africa; and caravans at short intervals depart from it for Fezzan, Darfur, and other quarters. The slave market of Cairo exhibits natives brought from almost every region of that great continent.

Old Cairo has scarcely any thing remarkable except the granaries of Joseph; which are merely a high wall, lately built, including a square spot of ground where the owners of land deposit wheat, barley, and other grain, as tribute to the pasha. There is likewise a tolerably handsome church, which is made use of by the Copts, who are Christians, and the original inhabitants of Egypt. Over against old Cairo there is an apartment built above the river, into which the water is admitted, and a column, which has lines at the distance of every inch, marks at every two feet as far as thirty. When the water rises to twenty-two feet, it is thought to be of a sufficient height; when it rises much higher, it becomes very injurious. There is much pomp and ceremony used in letting the water into the *khalis* or canal which leads to Cairo. Joseph's well is in the fortified palace, and was made by King Mohammed about 700 years ago. It is so called, because the Egyptians attribute every thing extraordinary to that remarkable person. It is cut in a rock, and is two hundred and eighty feet in depth. The water is drawn up to the top by means of oxen, placed on platforms at proper distances, which turn about the machines that raise it. The descent is so sloping, that, though there are no steps, the oxen can descend and ascend with ease. The inhabitants of Cairo are a mixture of Moors, Turks, Jews, Greeks, and Copts.

CAIRO, a town of Italy, in the province Mondovì, of the kingdom of Sardinia. It is situated on the river Bormida, and contains 4000 inhabitants.

CAIRO, a town of Italy, in the province Mortara, of the kingdom of Sardinia, at the junction of the Agogna with the Po. It contains 1460 inhabitants.

CAIROAN, or **CAIRWAN**, a city of Africa, in the kingdom of Tunis, seated in a sandy barren soil, about five miles from the Gulf of Capres. It has neither spring, well, nor river; for which reason they are obliged to preserve rain water in tanks and cisterns. It was built by the Aglabites, and was once the seat of a considerable kingdom, but it is now much decayed. There is still, however, a very superb mosque, and the tombs of the kings of Tunis are yet to be seen. Long. 9. 12. E. Lat. 35. 40. E.

CAISSON, in the military art, a wooden chest, into which several bombs are put, though it is sometimes filled only with gunpowder. This is buried under some work of which the enemy intend to possess themselves, and when they are masters of it, is fired in order to blow them up.

CAISSON is also used for a wooden frame or chest used in laying the foundations of the piers of a bridge.

CAISTOR, a market-town in the hundred of Yarborough and county of Lincoln. It is joined by a canal to the town of Glanford Brigg. It is a place of great antiquity, said to have been built by the Saxon Hengist. The town is supplied with water by four springs, whose streams, after passing through it, unite and form the river Ancolm. It is 157 miles from London. The market is held on Monday. The inhabitants amounted in 1811 to 1051, in 1821 to 1253, and in 1831 to 1253.

CAITHNESS is the most northern county of Scotland. It is bounded on the north by the Pentland Frith, which separates it from the Orkney Islands; on the east and south-east by the Moray Frith; on the south and south-west by Sutherlandshire; and on the west by the Northern Ocean. A chain of hills, commencing on the east at the Ord, runs along the division between Sutherland and it. One of these, Morven, rises to an elevation of 1929 feet. The Burn of the Ord forms the true boundary between the two counties on the east side; and a line drawn across the hill of Drumholliston, on the east of the river Halladale, constitutes that on the west coast. The form of the county is an irregular triangle, measuring along the eastern coast from Duncansby-head to the Ord about forty miles, and from Duncansby-head along the northern shore to Bighouse on the west, about thirty-five miles. No accurate map of the county has yet been constructed; but it is supposed to contain about 650 square miles. There are ten parishes of very unequal extent, the least being four miles long and two broad; the largest twenty-seven miles by ten or twelve. The coast nearly along the whole line is rocky and precipitous, with deep water to the edge of the rock, and at Dunnet-head it rises to the height of 340 feet. It is remarkable for a number of bold headlands. The principal of these are Sandside-head on the west; Holburn-head, Dunnet-head, Duncansby-head, Noss-head, and Clythness. Dunnet-head is the most northerly land on the mainland, lying in long. 3. 29. E. and lat. 58. 42. N. Near Duncansby-head lies John o' Groat's, commonly considered the most northern point; but it is two miles farther south than Dunnet-head.

There are several bays along the coast. Sandside Bay lies on the east of the head of that name. It is open, and not safe for shipping in particular winds. On the east of Holburn-head, and sheltered by it, lies Thurso Bay, having Scrabster roadstead close to the head, affording the most secure anchorage on a stiff blue clay bank sloping outwards. Dunnet Bay is much exposed to the north, and dangerous for shipping, being often mistaken for the entrance to the frith: the low sands lying at its bottom not being observable in a dark night till close at hand. Last year a light-house was finished on Dunnet-head, by which this danger is obviated. The light stands 340 feet above the sea. Riess Bay, or Sinclair's Bay, bounded on

the east by Noss-head, is also an exposed bay from the north-east; but in certain winds it affords good anchorage. Wick Bay, at the bottom of which stands the town of that name, is small, and very unsafe with the wind high from the east and south-east, a heavy sea then rolling in. The tide in the Pentland Frith runs, at spring tides, at the rate of nine miles an hour; and, when opposed by a strong wind, raises a very heavy sea. Within two miles of the shore, off Duncansby, lies the island of Stromas, about a mile long, round which the tides form several eddies. Off the point of Mey, a few miles farther west, there is an eddy of considerable strength, called the Merry Men of Mey, into which boats are sometimes in danger of being drawn. The navigation of the frith requires the aid of a pilot, unless the crew of the ship are well acquainted with it.

The county is generally level, or swelling into slight elevations, with very few hills, which are chiefly on the west side. It is well watered with rivers, brooks, and lochs, and seldom suffers from drought. The climate is variable. On an average of eight years, the number of days of more or less rain in each month is as follows:

Jan.	Feb.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
14	19	15	15	15	16	19	19	16	19	16	17

making for the whole year 193 days.

The average of days with snow is as follows:—

January.	February.	March.	April.	October.	November.	December.
7½	7	7½	4	2	5	3½

Instances of snow in May have occasionally occurred, as in May 1831, when there were four days of snow and heavy wind, which destroyed the prospect of small fruit.

The average of days of frost stands thus:

January.	February.	March.	April.	October.	November.	December.
8	7½	4½	2	1	4½	7½

In the summer and harvest, frost frequently occurs at night. Rain, snow, and frost, frequently occur on the same day during the winter.

The range of the barometer is very extensive, sometimes two inches and more; yet the climate is in general healthy. The soil is various, from black and clay loam to light sandy, in general yielding abundant crops of oats and bear, of which large quantities are exported. Wheat is also grown, but in small quantities, and also peas and beans. The subsoil is almost throughout clay upon clay slate rock. Whinstone and sandstone also occur. Dunnet and Duncansby-heads are composed of rough sandstone of a red colour. A white sandstone is found in abundance in the interior of Dunnet-head, and in other places on the coast of the Pentland Frith. Granite is found in mass in the Berriedale Hills. A good deal of an inferior limestone also occurs, and shell marl in great abundance. Traces of various metallic minerals have been found. A lead vein was discovered at Skinnet, near Thurso, and copper at Old Wick, near Wick, but neither was of any value. Bog-iron also occurs.

Great numbers of black cattle are reared for home use and sale. Many thousands were annually sent south, but of late years the demand has been very dull. A curious kind of traffic exists between Caithness and Orkney people. Annually a number of colts, one or two years old, are sent into the islands, which return a proportional number of horses from five to eight years old. This practice has existed from time immemorial.

There are few trees in the county; but experience has shown that they would thrive if proper care were employed to protect them when young. The trunks of large trees are often found in the mooses which abound in this county, and which yield the chief part of the fuel used by the people. Coals, principally English, are also now much in use. Partridges, hares, rabbits, grouse, plovers, &c.

Caithness abound; and there are some black-cock around Berridale and Langwell. Formerly great flocks of a bird larger than the sparrow, called the snow-fowl, visited this county in the winter season; but for some years past they have scarcely been seen. The rocks are frequented by eagles, hawks, and a variety of sea-fowl, which breed in great numbers.

The rivers and lochs afford trout, salmon, and eels; and the sea yields abundance of cod, haddock, and other kinds of fish. The salmon fishery is not now so successful as formerly. The herring fishery has of late years been very prosperous. Wick is the principal station. On an average of eleven years ending in 1830, there have been caught 100,000 barrels annually. There were 134 curers, employing 736 boats, 3564 fishers, 384 coopers, 239 labourers, and 2455 women. In 1830 about 153,000 barrels were taken. But the fishing of 1831 was not so productive. The quantity caught at other stations along the coast may amount to 40,000 or 50,000 more.

The population amounted at last census (1831) to 34,500, including Wick, Pulteneytown, and Thurso. In 1801 it was 22,609. The people are hardy and industrious. Their condition as cultivators of the ground has materially improved within the last forty years. Formerly they were oppressed with the exaction of personal services by the landlords. These consisted of labour on the lands in the natural possession of the proprietors, ploughing, sowing, cutting, and gathering in the crops; furnishing straw, fuel, fowls, eggs, &c.; shipping grain, and other services, which are now almost entirely abolished, and money payments substituted. Still they labour under several disadvantages, the principal of which are want of leases and too high rents. In general the rents, especially on the coast, are high; nor could the tenants pay them, but for their traffic in cattle, and the herring fishery. The improvement in agriculture has been very great within the last forty years. At the beginning of that period artificial or sown grasses and turnips were commodities possessed by few; now both are common, and their value is duly appreciated. A regular system of rotation of crops is pursued on all farms of any size; and the breed of working horses is greatly improved. The real rent of the county, which has increased to nearly one half within the last thirty years, exceeds £61,000. On some estates the rents are payable partly in money, partly in meal and bear.

Wick is the head burgh of the shire. It was erected into a royal burgh in 1589, in favour of the Earl of Caithness. But the superiority came into the possession of Sir John Sinclair, and was lately purchased by the Marquis of Stafford. Including Louisburgh, it contains 2269 inhabitants, and perhaps has made more rapid advances in improvement and extent of trade within the last twenty years than any other place of the same size in the empire. In the foreign trade of last year (1831) fifty vessels and 4072 tons of shipping were employed, while in the coasting trade there have been generally about 500 vessels and 35,000 tons likewise annually engaged. The chief imports are timber, hemp, iron, and tar, while the exports consist chiefly of fish.

The settlement of Pulteneytown, on the south side of the river of Wick, has sprung up entirely from the herring fishery. The first house was built only twenty-two years since, and now the town contains 2845 inhabitants. The ground was purchased from Lord Duffus, then Sir B. Dunbar, by the British Fishery Society, who derive a large income from the feu-duties, and the harbour dues of a large and secure port, lately completed at an expense of £1,40,000.

The town of Thurso is of great antiquity, and was erected into a burgh of barony in 1633. It has 2364 inhabitants.

The antiquities of this county consist of old castles and *Caithness* Picta' cairns. The former are nearly all on the coast, and on bold projecting points. The ruins of Castle Sinclair, anciently called Girnego, the residence of the earls, are situated on a tongue of lofty rock on the west side of Ness-head, and within Riess Bay. The castle of Kicea stands on the opposite side of the bay. The castle of Old Wick, to the south of the town, is known to mariners as the Old Man of Wick, and is a noted land-mark. The Bishop of Caithness, whose see included Sutherland, had a castle at Scrabster, a short distance west of Thurso. There are ruins of castles also at Forse, Latheron, and Berridale, and in the interior at Brail, Dirlet, and Lochmore, along the river Thurso. The only habitable castles are those of Mey, Ackergill, and Dunbeath.

The Picta' cairns are scattered over the face of the country, generally on the slopes of rising grounds. They are very numerous, and it has been remarked that there are at least three always in sight of one another. They were probably the houses of the richer inhabitants, the lower classes lodging in more perishable huts of turf, as many of them still do.

The names of places are generally of Danish origin; and a number of them end in *ster*, which signifies a station or estate. The language spoken by the people is the same as that of the south of Scotland, except in the parts bordering on Sutherland, where Gaelic is still in use, though giving place to English.

The ancient history of this county is, as might be expected, very obscure. What is known of it is little more than a record of petty quarrels, strifes, robberies, and bloodshed, as in other parts of Scotland in the same times.

The aborigines were the Picts, who were subdued and their possessions seized by the Norwegians, a kindred race, in the beginning of the tenth century. At the same time they took possession of the Orkneya. Their chiefs, under the title of Iarl or Earl, ruled Caithness and Orkney down to the beginning of the fourteenth century, when the direct line ceased in the person of Magnus. For a century the succession was unsettled and disputed. In 1456 the first of the family of Sinclair became earl. In the end of the seventeenth century the property of the earldom was alienated, and acquired by Glenorchy, afterwards Lord Breadalbane, who sold it to various persons; so that the present family succeeded to nothing but the title.

The county formerly sent a representative to Parliament alternately with Bute. But under the alteration which has just been made on the representation of Scotland, it will have a representative for itself, to which indeed it is well entitled from its population and rapid increase in importance.

Great improvements have been made in the county since the money wisely appropriated by government from the price of the forfeited estates has been expended in the Highlands in making roads and bridges. By that appropriation the recesses of the north have been opened up, and communication with the other end of the island rendered easy; the mail-coach now travelling through tracts where a Highland pony, twenty years ago, could only make his way. Valuable tracts of land have in consequence been brought into a state of high cultivation, and hme from Sunderland conveyed into the interior for that purpose. An impulse has been given to the spirit of improvement; and so much has the benefit arising from roads been valued by the inhabitants of this northern county, that the proprietors and tenants have lately procured an act of parliament for assessing themselves for the price of making 180 miles of additional roads. By this public-spirited measure great benefits must ere long arise to

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&
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the district; and within a short period, it is not doubted that fine fields and modern farm-steadings will be seen in

districts at present comparatively uncultivated and unknown.

Cajazzo
&
Cake.

YEARS.	HOUSES.			OCCUPATIONS.			PERSONS.		
	Inhabited.	By how many Families occupied.	Uninhabited.	Families chiefly employed in Agriculture.	Families chiefly employed in Trade, Manufactures, or Handicraft.	All other Families not comprised in the two preceding classes.	Males.	Females.	Total of Persons.
1811	4301	4714	139	3270	838	606	10,608	12,811	23,419
1821	5319	5944	89	3052	2188	704	14,196	16,042	30,238
1831	34,500

CAIUS, KAYE, or *Keye*, Dr JOHN, the founder of Caius College in Cambridge, was born at Norwich in 1510. He was admitted very young a student in Gonville Hall in the above-mentioned university; and at the age of twenty-one translated from Greek into Latin some pieces of divinity, and into English Erasmus's paraphrase on Jude, and other works. From these his juvenile labours, it seems probable that he first intended to prosecute the study of divinity. But he thus as it may, he travelled into Italy, and at Padua studied physic under the celebrated Montanus. In that university he continued some time, where we are told he read Greek lectures with great applause. In 1543 he travelled through part of Italy, Germany, and France; and returning to England, commenced doctor of physic at Cambridge. He practised first at Shrewsbury, and afterwards at Norwich; but removing to London in 1547, he was admitted fellow of the college of physicians, of which he was several years president. In 1557, being then physician to Queen Mary, and in great favour, he obtained a license to advance Gonville-hall, where he had been educated, into a college, which he endowed with several considerable estates, adding an entire new square at the expense of £1834. Of this college he accepted the mastership, which he held till within a short period of his death. He was physician to Edward VI., Queen Mary, and Queen Elizabeth. Towards the latter end of his life he retired to his own college at Cambridge, where having resigned the mastership to Dr Legge of Norwich, he spent the remainder of his life as a fellow commoner. He died in July 1573, aged sixty-three, and was buried in the chapel of his own college. Dr Caius was a learned, active, and benevolent man. In 1557 he erected a monument in St Paul's, to the memory of the famous Linacre. In 1563 he obtained a grant for the college of physicians to take the bodies of two malefactors annually for dissection; and he was the inventor of the *insignia* which distinguish the president from the rest of the fellows. He wrote, 1. *Annals of the College from 1555 to 1572*. 2. Translation of several of Galen's works, printed at different times abroad. 3. *Hippocrates de Medicamentis*; first discovered and published by our author; also *De Ratione Vietus*, Lov. 1556, 8vo. 4. *De Medendi Methodo*, Basel, 1554; Lond. 1556, 8vo. 5. Account of the Sweating Sickness in England, Lond. 1556, 1721. It is entitled *De Ephemera Britannica*. 6. History of the University of Cambridge, Lond. 1568, 8vo; 1574, 4to, in Latin. 7. *De Thermis Britannicis*; but it is doubtful whether this work was ever printed. 8. Of some Rare Plants and Animals, Lond. 1570. 9. *De Canibus Britannicis*, 1570, 12mo. 10. *De Pronunciatione Græcæ & Latine Lingue*, Lond. 1574. 11. *De Libri propria*, Lond. 1570. Besides many other works which never were printed. CAJARE, a market-town of the department of the Lot, in France, on the right bank of the Dordogne, with 1912 inhabitants.

CAJAZZO, a city of Italy, in the province Terra di Lavoro, of the kingdom of Naples, near the Voltorno. It has a cathedral, several other churches, and 2765 inhabitants.

CAJETAN, CARDINAL, was born at Cajeta, in the kingdom of Naples, in the year 1469. His proper name was Thomas de Vio, but he adopted that of Cajetan from the place of his nativity. He defended the authority of the pope, which had suffered greatly by the council of Nice, in a work entitled *Of the Power of the Pope*; and for this work he obtained the bishopric of Cajeta. He was afterwards raised to the archiepiscopal see of Palermo, and in 1517 was made a cardinal by Pope Leo X. The year after, he was sent as legate into Germany, to quiet the commotions raised against indulgences by Martin Luther; but Luther, under protection of Frederic elector of Saxony, set him at defiance; for though he obeyed the cardinal's summons in repairing to Augsburg, yet he rendered all his proceedings ineffectual. Cajetan was employed in several other negotiations and transactions, being as ready in business as in letters. He died in 1534. He wrote commentaries upon Aristotle's philosophy, and upon Thomas Aquinas's theology; and made a free translation of the Old and New Testaments.

CAJUPUT OIL, a volatile oil obtained by distillation from a species of melaleuca, which has lately obtained the name of *melaleuca cajuputi*; cajuputi being its Malay name. This tree, or rather shrub, is a native of the island of Ambony, and of the southern part of Borneo. Cajuputi is prepared from the leaves which are collected in a hot dry day, macerated in water, and distilled after fermenting for a night. Five bags of the dried leaves, it is said, are required to produce one ounce of the oil, which when distilled is limpid; but being generally transported to Europe in copper vessels, attains a greenish colour. When imported in glass bottles, it is perfectly pellucid. As the real cajuput oil is high priced, it is much exposed to adulteration.

Cajuput oil should be free from colour, or of a bluish green: it is extremely pungent to the taste, and has the odour of a mixture of turpentine and camphor. When dropped in water, it diffuses itself over its surface, and then entirely evaporates. It should burn without leaving any residuum. It is very soluble in alcohol, and sparingly so in water. Like other volatile oils, the cajuput is a powerful stimulant, and is used medicinally where such medicines are required. Some practitioners have given it a high character as a remedy for the pestilence which is at present ravaging Europe. It does not appear, however, to have any claim as a specific in the treatment of cholera. The dose taken internally is about five drops. It is used externally as a rubefacient, and is also resorted to occasionally with advantage in toothache.

CAKE, a finer sort of bread, so denominated from its flat round figure.

Calabash
Calabria.

The Hebrews had several sorts of cakes, which they offered in the temple. These were made of the meal either of wheat or barley, and were kneaded sometimes with oil and sometimes with honey; though sometimes they only rubbed them over with oil when they were baked, or fried them with oil in a frying-pan upon the fire. In the ceremony of Aaron's consecration, they sacrificed a calf and two rams, and offered unleavened bread, and cakes unleavened tempered with oil, and wafers unleavened anointed with oil; the whole being made of fine wheaten flour.

CALABASH, in Commerce, a light kind of vessel formed of the shell of a gourd emptied and dried, serving to put divers kinds of goods in, as pitch, rosin, and the like. The word in Spanish, *calabazo*, signifies the same.

CALABRIA CITERIORE, one of the southern provinces into which the kingdom of Naples, in Italy, is divided. It is bounded on the south by Calabria Ulteriore, on the east by the Ionic Sea, on the north by Basilicata, and on the west by the Mediterranean. Its extent is 3652 square miles, or 2,337,280 English acres. The Appenines are continued into this province, but are inferior to the height they attain in Abruzzo. In the south the mountains of Silla extend over more than 220 square miles. The province is watered by numberless small streams, whose course is short, and commonly rapid. The climate is mild, and, except on the mountains, the snow never remains. The productive power of the soil is very various, but it yields sufficient corn for the inhabitants. The products are wheat, barley, beans, maize, rice, flax, and hemp; besides cotton, tobacco, saffron, liquorice, and wine of great strength. Oil and silk are also produced. The fishery is an important means of affording employment to numerous persons, who catch large quantities of the tunny, and of sardinia. There are scarcely any roads through the province, and of the few, some are nearly impassable; consequently there is little internal traffic. What little external commerce exists, centres in the capital, Cosenza. The number of inhabitants, by a census of 1798, appeared to be 345,532; but in 1807, by the product of a tax on fire-places, the population was estimated at 374,000. It is divided into four districts, viz. Cosenza, Rossano, Amantea, and Castrovillari.

CALABRIA ULTERIORE, a province of the Neapolitan kingdom of Italy. It is usually divided into two parts, numbered one and two, but these are here described together. The province is a peninsula, bearing a resemblance to the foot of the boot to which the map of Italy has been likened. It is surrounded by the sea, except on the north, where it is bounded by Calabria Citeriore. The extent is 3398 square miles, or 2,178,320 English acres.

Although the continuation of the ridge of the Appenines is obvious throughout the whole province, yet their elevation generally decreases towards the south. The soil is generally fertile; and the heat of the climate makes it a kind of forcing house as compared with the other parts of Italy. Snow and ice are scarcely known; and the aloe and date trees come to perfection in the open air. In summer, however, the whole province is burnt up, and the sirocco extends the scorching breath of Africa over all the land. The products are wheat, maize, barley, beans, rice, cotton, buck-wheat, sugar-canes, tobacco, flicoric, and melons, with other fruits. Besides these, much silk of an excellent quality is raised; and pitch, tar, and turpentine, are made from the trees. The sheep and other cattle are by no means so abundant as in the other Calabria. There are marks of gold, silver, lead, and copper, but no mines are worked of any of these metals. Manufactures are at a low ebb, and confined to silk and wool. There are a few coasting vessels, and some fishing vessels belonging to the Calabrese, but there is no foreign trade. The whole population of the province amounts to about 450,000 individuals.

CALABRITTO, a city of Italy, in the Neapolitan pro-Calabritto-vince Principato-Citeriore, with 2160 inhabitants.

CALAHORRA, a town of Spain, in the province of Old Castile, and in the district of Soria. It was a city of considerable distinction in past ages, and the vestiges of its grandeur are still visible around it. The vicinity of the place yields a considerable quantity of fine wool. It is on the banks of the little river Yregua, which falls into the Ebro. It is the seat of a bishop, and contains 7200 inhabitants; and there is a beautiful bridge of ten arches over the river. This town was the birth-place of Quintilian.

CALAIS, a city of the arrondissement of Boulogne, and department of Calais, in France. It is a place of importance from being the nearest point to England, and the landing place of those who pass from thence to the Continent. The harbour, which is dry at low water, is only fit for the reception of small vessels. It is fortified strongly both on the land and sea sides. The walls form a pleasing, and indeed the only promenade. It is well built, with a good square, and with streets leading from it in straight lines. It contains 900 houses, besides barracks; and the inhabitants amount to 8500. The place suffers from want of good water.

CALAIS, PAYS DE, one of the departments of France, on the sea coast. It is bounded on the north by the British Channel, on the north-east by the department of the north, on the south by that of the Somme, and on the west by the Channel. It extends over 2596 square miles, and is divided into six arrondissements, and these are subdivided into forty-three cantons and 953 communes. The population amounts to 584,650. It is generally a level district, near the sea-coast, rather marshy, but remarkable for excellent pasture and dairy land. The greater portion of the land is under the plough, and is well cultivated on the Flemish system. The department is abundantly supplied with water, which is applied both to purposes of navigation and of irrigation. With a few exceptions, it is by far the best cultivated of any part of France, and in the greater part of the arrondissements of Arras, Bethune, and St Omer, it is scarcely possible to find a spot of land not highly productive. Green crops are abundantly raised, and the dung from the animals fed on them provides abundant manure for the corn land; while the mode of ploughing the land and furrowing it operates to prevent injury from too much rain. It is a manufacturing as well as an agricultural district. Woolen, linen, and cotton goods, hosiery, lace, leather, earthenware, beer, corn, spirits, paper, hats, and soap, are extensively produced, besides flax, hemp, and linseed oil. There are considerable fisheries on the sea-coast and in the several rivers.

CALAIS, St, an arrondissement in the department of the Sarthe, in France, extending over 465 square miles. It is divided into six cantons, and these again into sixty communes, containing 66,330 inhabitants. The chief place is a city of the same name, on the river Anille, in an unfruitful spot, containing 3646 inhabitants, occupied in manufacturing serges, flannels, and some kinds of linen goods.

CALAMANCO, a sort of woollen stuff manufactured in England and Brabant. It has a fine gloss, and is checked in the warp, whence the checks appear only on the right side. Some calamancoes are quite plain, others have broad stripes adorned with flowers, others plain broad stripes, others narrow stripes, and others are watered.

CALAMIANES, a group of small islands in the Eastern Seas, about twelve in number, and situated to the north and north-east of the Philippines. They are surrounded by numerous shoals and rocks, which render the navigation intricate and dangerous. The largest of these islands are called Buravogon and Calamiane, and the latter is about twenty-three miles in length by five in breadth;

Calami-
anes.

Calamine
Calamy.

the whole constituting a province under its name, which is divided between the Sultan of Borneo and the Spaniards. There are besides numerous tribes of natives who dwell in the interior parts, without chiefs or established laws. The island produces the edible birds-nests which the Chinese consider as so great a delicacy, and it trades besides in rice, honey, and wax. Pearls are found on the coast. Long. 120. 20. E. Lat. 12. N.

CALAMINE, the native carbonate and silicate of zinc, which, though very generally found in the same deposits, differ materially both in their mineralogical and chemical characters. The most prevalent colour of Calamine is white; occasionally, however, it is blue, green, yellow, or brown. It varies also from transparent to opaque; has a vitreous lustre; and occurs both crystallized, stalactitic, mammillated, and massive. It is frequently found in veins, associated with blende, and ores of iron and lead. Considerable quantities occur at Bleiberg and Raibell in Carinthia, Tarnowitz in Silesia, Altenberg near Aix-la-Chapelle, in the Mendip-hills of Somersetshire, at Wanlockhead in Dumfriesshire, and at Alton Moor in Cumberland. It is a very useful ore of zinc, containing generally from sixty to seventy per cent. of that metal. For further particulars see MINERALOGY.

CALAMOTA, an island on the coast of the Austrian kingdom of Dalmatia, in the Adriatic Sea. It is a little to the west of Ragusa, and contains only one town, or rather large village.

CALAMUS, in the ancient poets, denotes a simple kind of pipe or flauta, the musical instrument of the shepherds and herdsmen, and usually made either of an osen stalk or a reed.

CALAMUS Scriptorius, in antiquity, a reed or rush to write with. The ancients made use of styles to write on tables covered with wax, and of reed or rush to write on parchment or Egyptian paper.

CALAMY, EDMUND, an eminent Presbyterian divine, born at London in the year 1600, and educated at Pembroke Hall, Cambridge, where his attachment to the Arminian party excluded him from a fellowship. Dr Felton, bishop of Ely, however, made him his chaplain; and in 1639 he was chosen minister of St Mary Aldermay, in the city of London. Upon the opening of the long parliament he distinguished himself in defence of the Presbyterian cause, and had a principal hand in writing the famous *Sinectymnus*, which, he himself says, gave the first deadly blow to Episcopacy. The authors of this tract were five, the initials of whose names formed the name under which it was published, viz. Stephen Marshall, Edmund Calamy, Thomas Young, Matthew Newcomen, and William Sparstow. He was afterwards an active member in the assembly of divines, and a strenuous opposer of sectaries; and he used his utmost endeavours to prevent the violence which were committed after the king was brought from the Isle of Wight. In Cromwell's time he lived privately, but was assiduous in promoting the king's return; for which he was afterwards offered a bishopric, but refused it. He was ejected for nonconformity in 1662, and died of grief at the sight of the great fire of London.

CALAMY, Edmund, grandson to the preceding (by his eldest son, Mr Edmund Calamy, who was ejected from the living of Moxton in Essex, on St Bartholomew's day 1662), was born in London on the 5th April 1671. After having learned the languages, and gone through a course of natural philosophy and logic at a private academy in England, he studied philosophy and civil law at the university of Utrecht, and attended the lectures of the learned Grevius. Whilst he resided there, an offer of a professor's chair in the university of Edinburgh was made him

by Mr Carstairs, principal of that university, sent over on purpose to find a person properly qualified for such an office. This he declined, and returned to England in 1691, bringing with him letters from Gravæus to Dr Pococke, canon of Christ-church, and regius professor of Hebrew, and to Dr Bernard, Savilian professor of astronomy, who obtained leave for him to prosecute his studies in the Bodleian Library. Having resolved to make divinity his principal study, he entered into an examination of the controversy between the conformists and nonconformists, which determined him to join the latter, and, coming to London in 1692, he was unanimously chosen assistant to Mr Matthew Sylvester at Blackfriars; and in 1694 he was ordained at Mr Annesley's meeting-house in Little St Helena, and soon afterwards was invited to become assistant to Mr Daniel Williams in Hand-Alley. In 1702 he was chosen one of the lecturers in Salters Hall; and in 1703 he succeeded Mr Vincent Alsop as pastor of a great congregation in Westminster. He drew up the table of contents to Mr Baxter's *History of his Life and Times*, which was sent to the press in 1696; made some remarks on the work itself, and added to it an index; and, reflecting on the usefulness of the book, he saw the expediency of continuing it, as Mr Baxter's history came no lower than the year 1684. Accordingly he composed an abridgment of it, with an account of many other ministers who were ejected after the restoration of Charles II.; their apology, containing the grounds of their nonconformity and practice as to stated and occasional communion with the church of England; and a continuation of their history until the year 1702. This work was published in 1702. He afterwards published a moderate defence of nonconformity, in three tracts, in answer to some tracts of Dr Hoadley. In 1709 Mr Calamy made a tour to Scotland, and had the degree of doctor of divinity conferred on him by the universities of Edinburgh, Aberdeen, and Glasgow. In 1713 he published a second edition of his *Abridgment of Mr Baxter's History of his Life and Times*; in which, among various additions, there is a continuation of the history through King William's reign and Queen Anne's, down to the passing of the occasional bill; and in the close is subjoined the reformed liturgy, which was drawn up and presented to the bishops in 1661, "that the world may judge," as he says in his preface, "how fairly the ejected ministers have been often represented as irreconcilable enemies to all liturgies." In 1718 he wrote a vindication of his grandfather, and several other persons, against certain reflections cast upon them by Mr Archdeacon Echard in his *History of England*; and in 1728 appeared his continuation of the account of the ministers, lecturers, masters, and fellows of colleges, and school-masters, who were ejected, after the Restoration in 1660, by or before the act of uniformity. He died on the 3d of June 1732, greatly regretted, not only by the dissenters, but also by the moderate members of the established church, both clergy and laity, with many of whom he lived in great intimacy. Besides the pieces already mentioned, he published a great many sermons on several subjects and occasions. He was twice married, and had thirteen children.

CALANORE, the chief town of a small district of the same name in Hindustan, province of Lahore. Acbar was here first proclaimed emperor on the death of his father in 1556. Long. 75. 0. E. Lat. 31. 51. N. The district is situated in the Sikh territories, between the 31st and 32d degrees of north latitude.

CALAS, JOHN, the name of a most unfortunate Protestant merchant at Toulouse, inhumanly butchered under forms of law which were prostituted to shelter the sanguinary dictates of ignorant and fanatical zeal. He had

Calanore
Calas.

Calasci-
betta
Calascini

lived forty years at Toulouse. His wife was an English-woman of French extraction, and they had five sons, one of whom, Louis, had turned Catholic through the persuasions of a Catholic maid who had lived thirty years in the family. In October 1761 the family consisted of Calas, his wife, Mark Antony their son, Peter their second son, and this maid. Antony was educated for the bar; but being of a melancholy turn of mind, was continually dwelling on passages from authors on the subject of suicide, and one night in that month hanged himself on a bar laid across two folding doors in the shop. The crowd collected by the confusion of the family on so shocking a discovery took it into their heads that he had been strangled by the family to prevent his changing his religion, and that this was a common practice among Protestants. The officers of justice adopted the popular tale, and were supplied by the mob with what they accepted as conclusive evidence of the fact. The fraternity of White Penitents got the body, buried it with great ceremony, and performed a solemn service for him as a martyr; the Franciscans did the same; and after these formalities no one doubted the guilt of the devoted heretical family. Being all condemned to the torture in order to bring them to confession, they appealed to the parliament; but this body, being as weak and as wicked as the subordinate magistrates, sentenced the father to the torture, ordinary and extraordinary, to be broken alive upon the wheel, and then to be burnt to ashes; a diabolical decree, which, to the shame of humanity, was actually carried into execution. Peter Calas, the other son, was banished for life; and the rest were acquitted. The distracted widow, however, found some friends, and among these Voltaire, who laid her case before the council of state at Versailles; and the parliament of Toulouse was ordered to transmit the proceedings. These the king and council unanimously agreed to annul; the chief magistrate of Toulouse was degraded and fined; old Calas was declared to have been innocent; and every imputation of guilt was removed from the family, who also received from the king and clergy considerable gratuities.

CALASCIBETTA, a city of the intendency of Calatanissetta, in the island of Sicily, in the defile between two mountains, on the river Nebroden. It contains 4780 inhabitants.

CALASIL, or CALESI, a small light kind of chariot or chair, with very low wheels, used chiefly for taking the air in parks and gardens.

CALASIO, MARIUS, a Franciscan, and professor of the Hebrew language at Rome, of whom there is very little to be said, but that he published there, in the year 1621, a concordance of the bible, which consisted of four great volumes in folio. This work has been highly approved and commended both by Protestants and Catholics, and is indeed a most admirable work; for, besides the Hebrew words of the bible, which compose the body of the book, with the Latin version over against them, there are in the margin the differences between the Septuagint version and the Vulgate; so that at one view may be seen wherein the three bibles agree, and wherein they differ. Moreover, at the beginning of every article there is a kind of dictionary, which gives the signification of each Hebrew word; affords an opportunity of comparing it with other oriental languages, viz. with the Syriac, Arabic, and Chaldean; and is extremely useful for determining more exactly the true meaning of the Hebrew words.

CALASIRIS, in antiquity, a linen tunic fringed at the bottom, and worn by the Egyptians under a white woollen garment; but this last they were obliged to pull off when they entered the temples, being only allowed to appear there in linen garments.

CALATAFINI, a city of Sicily, in the intendency of Trapani. It is between two hills, in a fine corn country,

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containing 10,000 inhabitants. This district is celebrated for its dairy and breeding cattle.

CALATANISSETTA, one of the intendancies into which the island of Sicily is divided. It is bounded on the north by Palermo, on the east by Catania, on the south-east by Siracusa, on the south by the sea, and on the west by Girgenti. It is divided into three districts, viz. Calatanissetta, Mazza, and Terranova, and contains 155,325 inhabitants.

CALATANISSETTA, a city, the capital of the intendency and district of the same name, in the island of Sicily. It is situated in an extensive and fertile plain, on a healthy spot, has broad streets and good buildings, and contains 2800 houses, with 15,627 inhabitants, who are chiefly employed in making linen cloth.

CALATAYUD, a small city of Spain, in the province of Aragon. It is situated on the river Xalon, a little below its junction with the Xiloca, in a fertile valley, which produces abundantly olives, grasses, and melons. The ruins of the ancient city of Bilbilis, the native place of the poet Martial, are to be seen near Calatayud. This city contains 1500 houses and 9000 inhabitants, three tanneries, and twelve soap-boiling houses. There is annually raised here 20,000 hundredweight of hemp.

CALATHIUS, in antiquity, a kind of hand-basket made of light wood or rushes, used by the women sometimes to carry flowers, but chiefly, after the example of Minerva, to put their work in. The figure of the calathus, as represented on ancient monuments, is narrow at the bottom, but widens upwards like that of a top. Pliny compares it to that of a lily. The calathus or work-basket of Minerva is no less celebrated among the poets than her distaff.

CALATHUS was also the name of a wine-cup used in sacrifices.

CALATOR, in antiquity, a crier, or officer appointed to publish something aloud, or call the people together. The word is formed from *καλεω*, *to call*, "I call." The pontifices had such ministers, whom they used to send before them when they went to sacrifice on *feriae* or holidays, in order to advertise the people to leave off work. The magistrates also used *calatores*, to call the people to the comitia, both *curiata* and *centuriata*. The officers in the army also had *calatores*; as had likewise many private families, to invite their guests to entertainments.

CALATHRAVA, a small town of Spain, in New Castile, situated on the river Guadiana, from which a well-known order of knights take their title. Long. 3. 20. W. Lat. 39. 4. N.

Knights of CALATHRAVA, a military order in Spain, instituted by Sancho III. king of Castile, upon the following occasion. When that prince took the strong fort of Calatrava from the Moors of Andalusia, he gave it to the Templars, who, wanting courage to defend it, returned it to him again. Then Don Raymon, of the order of the Cistercians, accompanied with several persons of quality, made an offer to defend the place, which the king thereupon delivered up to them, and instituted that order. It increased so much under the reign of Alfonso, that the knights desired they might have a grand master, which was granted. Ferdinand and Isabella, with the consent of Pope Innocent VIII., afterwards reunited the grand mastership of Calatrava to the Spanish crown, so that the kings of Spain became perpetual administrators of this office.

The knights of Calatrava bear a cross gules, fleur-de-lisced with green. Their rule and habit were originally those of the Cistercians.

CALAURIA, in *Ancient Geography*, an island of Greece, in the Saronic bay, over against the port of Troezen, at

5 c

Calatanis-
setta
Calauria

Calayan
&
Caledony.

the distance of forty stadia. Hither Demosthenes went twice into banishment, and here he died.

CALAYAN, a small island in the Pacific Ocean, and the most northerly of those called the Babuyancas islands. It is situated due north of the large island of Luzon, and is about twenty-three miles in circumference. Long. 121. 30. E. Lat. 16. 28. N.

CALATOTURA, a city of Italy, in the intendency of Palermo, in the island of Sicily. It is situated in a valley among the mountains, near the river Grande, and contains about 3200 inhabitants. The situation is somewhat unhealthy.

CALCAR, JOHN DE, a celebrated painter, was the disciple of Titian, and perfected himself by studying Raphael. Among various pieces, he drew a Nativity, representing the angels around the infant Christ; and so ordered the disposition of his picture as to cause the light to proceed from the child. He died at Naples in 1546, in the flower of his age.

CALCAREOUS SPAR, or **CRYSTALLIZED CARBONATE OF LIME**, one of the most generally diversified substances in the mineral kingdom, and certainly that which presents the greatest variety of crystalline forms. The Abbé Haüy has drawn and described upwards of 500 of these; and since his time not fewer than 800 other distinct modifications have been determined, all of which, when fractured, present as their primitive form an obtuse rhomb of 105° 5' and 74° 53'. The most prevalent colour of calcareous spar is white, though it also presents numerous shades of yellow, green, blue, and red, most of them pale. Its dark brown and black colours are owing to the admixture of bitumen. It is transparent or translucent, and has in the clear specimens a very distinct double refraction. It has a vitreous lustre, and perfect cleavage. The pure varieties consist, according to the analyses of Stronmeyer, and Phillips, of

Lime.....	56.15.....	55.50
Carbonic acid.....	43.70.....	44.00;

but the coloured ones not unfrequently contain small portions of oxide of iron, silica, magnesia, alumina, carbon, and bitumen. It effervesces violently with acids, and if pure is entirely soluble in nitric acid. At an ordinary heat it does not fuse, but gives off its carbonic acid, shines with a peculiar brightness, and ultimately becomes quick-lime. Among the most distinguished localities of calcareous spar may be enumerated Andlarsberg, and other mining districts in the Hartz, where the varieties in six-sided prisms have been found of great beauty; Alston Moor in Cumberland, which affords numerous flat rhombic crystals; and Derbyshire, whence the pyramidal forms, sometimes of very large dimensions, are obtained. Under the head of calcareous spar there are a number of sub-species, which depend chiefly upon their mode of composition, and upon admixtures and impurities, with which the individuals have been affected at their formation. These will be fully described among the minerals.

CALCEARIUM, in antiquity, a donative or largess bestowed on Roman soldiers for buying shoes. In monasteries, *calcearium* denoted the daily service of cleaning the shoes of the religious.

CALCEDONY. The distinction between this substance and agate rests upon very arbitrary grounds. Agate frequently presents a variety of colours, and a multiplicity of beautiful delineations. Calcedony is generally of one uniform colour, of a light brown, and sometimes nearly white. It occurs in irregular masses, forming grotesque cavities in the trap rocks, particularly in Iceland and the Faroe Isles, from the former of which there are specimens in the Museum of Edinburgh of a very large size. These stalactites appear always to have proceeded from the up-

per part of the cavity, which is sometimes filled up to the very summit with solid matter. From a close examination of these specimens, we are led to believe that the material must have been introduced into the cavity either in a state of the most attenuated fluidity, or even in a gaseous form. The structure can be traced down the sides of the cavity, regularly surrounding every portion of the stalactite, and passing across the horizontal plate which uniformly forms the base of these cavities. A slight intermixture of opalescent matter, which renders the calcedony more white and opaque, delineates this structure in the most perfect manner, and is a common occurrence in Faroe.

Calcedony is not confined to the trap rocks; it occurs in granite; and the most beautiful specimens known were found in one of the mines of Cornwall, distinguished by the name of Trevascus. It was, however, in one solitary cell that these occurred. Although the mine has continued to yield calcedony of the same character, nothing similar to these magnificent specimens has been produced since. They can scarcely be compared to any thing which they resemble more than the anatomized wing of a large bat, exhibiting the bones and arteries in the most perfect manner. One of these beautiful specimens, which was in the possession of the late Mr Greville, is now in the British Museum.

Calcedony is used for the construction of cups and plates, and other articles of taste, of which the most splendid specimens are imported into this country from India. The labour which has been bestowed in the manufacture of these articles, and the perfection with which it has been accomplished, is a matter of surprise to all who examine them. There are some of them as thin as and as delicate as china. The finest stones are of course selected for this purpose. They are generally clear and almost transparent, still maintaining the warm brown colour which characterises the stone. They often have the appearance of having been hammered, so shaded and undulated in the aspect of the mass; and to add to their beauty, the fine dendritic Mocha stones are often selected. We are in ignorance even of the locality where these beautiful objects are manufactured, whether in Japan or China; but to this country they generally come from India, where, we believe, they are found among the most precious jewels in the repositories of the nabobs and princes of the East.

Calcedony in Europe is confined to labours on a much smaller scale, such as knife-handles, and mortars for chemical purposes; also for snuff-boxes, buttons, and other minor objects. The principal manufactory is at Oberstein in the Palatinate.

Calcedony is semitransparent; its texture is fine and compact; the fracture is scaly, resembling that of wax; it is less hard than rock crystal, but gives fire with steel. No indications of regular form have ever been observed in this substance; for we need not except the pale blue variety from Tresztyan in Transylvania, which is decidedly a pseudomorphic formation in the form of fluor spar. Calcedony frequently assumes the forms of other minerals, as well as of shells in many instances; but these may be considered as accidents unconnected with the history of the substance.

Connected with agate and calcedony, we may at once enumerate the different varieties which are still maintained by mineralogists.

1. Sardonyx (quartz, agate, sardonyx of the French). This variety is characterised by a rich orange colour.

2. Cornelian (cornaline of the French). The characteristic colour of this variety is a brilliant red.

3. Prase (the chrysoprasi of the Germans). This variety occurs at Kosmütz in Silesia. It sometimes pos-

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Calcutta. Differential or Fluxionary Calculus. La Grange gave this name to his particular view of the subject. (*Théorie des Fonctions Analytiques, also Leçons sur le Calcul des Fonctions.*)

THE CALCULUS OF *Finite Differences*. This investigates the properties of quantities by means of their differences; it is of great value in the summation of infinite series. Brooke Taylor's *Methodus Incrementorum*, Stirling's *Methodus Differentialis*, and Emerson's *Method of Increments*, also his *Differential Method*, all treat of this subject. There are also various treatises in works on the Differential Calculus, as Lacroix, &c.

THE CALCULUS OF *Derivations*. This is applicable to the doctrine of series, and is due to a continental mathematician, Arbogast, who has composed a treatise on the subject. (*Arbogast Du Calcul des Dérivations.*)

THE CALCULUS OF *Probabilities*. This treats of every thing connected with the *Doctrine of Chances*. The most valuable work on this subject is La Place's *Théorie Analytique des Probabilités*.

THE CALCULUS OF *Sines*. This branch of mathematical science was embodied in a distinct form by Euler. See his various writings, particularly his *Analysis Infinitorum*. We have explained this calculus in our article ALGEBRA.

There are some other mathematical theories which have been distinguished each as a separate Calculus, as Landon's *Residual Analysis*, Glenie's *Antecedental Calculus* (*Edin. Phil. Trans.* vol. iv.), &c.

Calculus Minerve, among the ancient lawyers, denoted the decision of a cause in regard to which the judges were equally divided. The expression is taken from the history of Orestes, represented by Æschylus and Euripides; at whose trial before the Areopagites, for the murder of his mother, the votes being equally divided for and against him, Minerva interposed, and gave the casting vote or calculus in his behalf.

CALCUTTA, one of the largest and most splendid cities of Asia, the modern capital of Hindustan, and the seat of the supreme government of the British in India. It is situated upon the river Hooghly, which forms the western channel of the Ganges, and, though not the principal, is the only one of its numerous branches which is navigable for large vessels. It stands on an almost perfect level of alluvial and marshy ground, which a century ago was covered with jungle and stagnant pools, and which still almost everywhere betrays its unsoundness by the cracks conspicuous in the best houses. The town is 100 miles from the mouth of the river, the navigation of which is difficult, and often dangerous, on account of its numerous sand banks, many of which are continually shifting their situation. Vessels drawing more than seventeen feet water cannot, except at spring-tides, ascend with safety above Diamond Harbour, where the vessels of the East India Company usually load and unload. This is about sixty miles below Calcutta; and passengers are conveyed to the city in smaller vessels or in boats. The country, from the mouth of the Hooghly to Diamond Harbour, is dreary in the extreme; the banks of the river are high, and the adjacent land on each side, which is perfectly flat, forms a complete wilderness of timber and brushwood, the haunt of tigers, and of other beasts of prey. Advancing up the river, the scene gradually improves; the country becomes more and more cultivated; the shipping and the bustle on the river increase; and the beautiful country-seats on its banks announce the approach to the capital. The city, with its numerous spires and other public edifices, presents, at a distance, a striking appearance; and, on landing, the magnificence of the buildings commands the admiration of all strangers. The town and suburbs extend along the left or eastern bank of the river

above six miles, but varying much in breadth at different places. In the middle of it, and very near the landing place, is an immense square, each side of which extends above a quarter of a mile; and the centre is occupied by a large tank or open reservoir of water for the supply of the town. This square, together with the adjacent buildings and those towards the south, forms what is properly termed the town of Calcutta, the residence of the European inhabitants and of the natives of distinction. To the south, along the bank of the river, lies the Black Town, which is occupied entirely by the lower classes of inhabitants, and is rather considered as part of the suburbs; and about a quarter of a mile to the north stand Fort-William and the barracks, which form on this side a great ornament to the city. The intermediate space, which is an extensive open plain, is termed the esplanade. The citadel of Fort-William, which was begun by Lord Clive in 1757, after the battle of Plassey, is the strongest and most regular fortress in India; but the works are so extensive that they would require at least 9000 or 10,000 men, with 600 pieces of cannon, to defend them. On the west of the esplanade stands the government-house, built by the Marquis Wellesley, which is the largest and most splendid building in Calcutta. It is the residence of the governor-general, where he holds levees, and transacts all the government business; it also contains magnificent apartments for public entertainments. The other public buildings are a town-house, with public rooms, which, though handsome, are too confined for the climate and for the number of the inhabitants; a court of justice, the hospital, and jail, which are situated on the esplanade; two English churches, the one of which is a plain building, but the other has an elegant appearance; a Scottish church; also churches for the Portuguese Catholics; another for those of the Greek persuasion, an Armenian church, many small Hindu pagodas, Mahomedan mosques, and a Sikk temple. All these various religions here enjoy the most perfect toleration.

The custom-house faces the river, and forms part of the west side of the great square. It is built upon the site of the old fort, which was taken in 1757 by Surajah Dowlah. Near to it is the famous Black Hole, which is now converted into a warehouse; and before the gate stands the monument which has been erected to commemorate the unfortunate persons who perished there. It is surrounded by an iron railing; but it has been struck with lightning, and has since been allowed to go to decay. In front of the custom-house is the quay, which has been of essential service to the numerous shipping which there load and unload. On the west side of the river, and in a beautiful situation, stands the botanic garden, at a bend to which it gives the name of Garden Reach. It contains a splendid collection of plants from every quarter of the globe, and is laid out with great taste, but more with a view to practical utility than scientific arrangement. Above the garden there is an extensive plantation of teak. Horse-racing having been discouraged by government, the course, which was to the south of the town, is now converted into a ride; but the practice still continues at Barrackpore, sixteen miles up the river, where the fashionable society of Calcutta assemble to partake of the amusement. The south side of the great square is occupied by the writers' buildings, which make but an indifferent appearance. They form the residence of this class of the Company's servants who are newly arrived from Europe, and who are students at the college of Fort-William. The private houses in Calcutta, in the central or genteel part of the town, are built mostly after the European fashion, but modified to the nature of the climate and to the magnificence of eastern manners. In a line with the government-house is a

Calcutta.

Calcutta. range of elegant buildings, ornamented with large verandahs, and another, at right angles with it, called Chourin-gee, formerly occupied by native huts. These houses are built of brick, covered with a species of stucco called chunam. They are all separated from each other, every one having attached to it a considerable piece of inclosed ground, in the middle of which it is situated. The approach is by a flight of steps under a large portico. The architecture is Grecian, and the profusion of columns, porticoes, and verandahs, gives them more the air of palaces than of private houses. To this part of Calcutta the Black Town, which extends along the river to the north of Calcutta, forms a striking contrast. It is built after the model of Indian towns, is very large, and swarming with population. The streets are exceedingly narrow, crooked, and dirty, and are all unpaved, with numerous ponds, reservoirs, and gardens, interspersed. A few of the streets are paved with brick. The houses are built, some of brick, above two stories high; but the great majority are built of bamboos and mats, only one story high, and covered with thatch; all which different kinds of fabrics standing intermixed present a very uncouth appearance. The houses being for the most part formed of such combustible materials, fires are common, and have often proved very destructive. Within these thirty or forty years, however, this quarter of the town has been greatly improved both in appearance and in the salubrity of the air; the streets have been widened and properly drained, and the ponds have been filled; a large surface of stagnant water has been thereby removed, the exhalations from which were prejudicial to health; and the houses have been rendered less combustible, by being tiled in place of thatched.

Though building materials are abundant in the neighbourhood of Calcutta, house-rent is not moderate. This is owing partly to the high interest of money, and partly to the constant repairs which are required, from the casting of the wood in this hot climate, and from the ravages of insects, particularly the white ants. Though the woodwork of a house appear externally quite sound, it often turns out upon examination to be completely excavated or honeycombed by these insects, which assemble in incredible numbers wherever they can find an entrance.

The houses here which are known under the name of taverns are greatly inferior in respectability to those in Europe. They are, with the exception of two or three particular houses, resorted to only by the lowest company; and strangers who are enticed into them are exposed to every species of imposition, and frequently to total ruin. A European, on his first landing, is surrounded by numerous dangers and inconveniences, which he finds it extremely difficult to escape. These are so well described in the *East India Vade-Mecum*, by Captain Thomas Williamson, that we will extract the following passages for the instruction of such of our countrymen as propose to visit those distant regions.

"The tavern-keeper, under the plausible pretext of aiding towards the completion of the youth's wishes, never fails to inquire whether the gentleman has any friends in town, or even in the country. If affirmatively answered, 'mine host' feels himself tolerably secure of his money; but will probably assert that the friend in town is out of the way, and will not be back for some days. Should the gentleman be totally destitute of friends, then comes the rich harvest. Imposition following imposition sells the bill, which, if appearances warrant forbearance, is kept back as long as possible, under the pleasing assurance of perfect confidence; but in the end a catalogue of items is produced, which never fails to alarm, if not to ruin, the unsuspecting victim!

"If, unhappily, the guest should so far lower himself as

to associate with the ordinary company of the common drinking-room, he is irretrievably gone. Quarrels, riots, and inebriety, must follow, in all probability rendering him subject to the notice of the police. *Should his face ever be seen at that office, it would be next to impossible that he should be admitted into any respectable circle.* What with lodging, dinners, wines, &c. of the worst description, but all rated at the highest prices, he must be a fortunate wight who escapes under a gold mohur (i.e. two guineas) per day; in general double that sum is charged; so that a person starts at the rate of L.1000 per annum at least; while, in all probability, no established or even apparent provision exists whereby he may be maintained.

"To state the evil without pointing out the remedy would be next to useless; but when I suggest the means of avoiding those difficulties, or any portion of them, attendant on arrival in a foreign land, it must be understood that I consider the stranger to be possessed of pecuniary means; that is, that he can pay his way. Without this he can do nothing, and must undergo all the afflictions and miseries attendant upon despised poverty in every part of the globe. It may be proper to point out in this place, that what might here appear to be liberal calculations, would not suit the East, where every article of European manufacture bears so enormous a price, where house-rent is so expensive, and where it is indispensably necessary to retain so many servants. The first thing to be done (setting a letter of recommendation out of the question) should be report arrival at the secretary's office, depositing the certificate of the court of directors' license to proceed to India; without which the party is considered as an alien, and scarcely considered as entitled to British protection. This does not arise from ill will on the part of government or of the inhabitants, but from that strict attention the politics of the country imperiously demand to be paid to the several characters and descriptions of persons residing within our territory.

"The above relates equally to all persons in the civil or military branches; the certificate granted at the India House must be produced, in order to identify the party; but if it should have been lost, he himself, together with the commander who received the order for taking him on board, must attend, to make affidavit to that effect, before the appointment can be admitted upon the registers in India.

"Such as appertain to the civil service, being always strongly recommended, and often finding many old acquaintances of their families on the spot, require but little advice; nor does the cadet stand much in need of instruction as to the manner in which he should provide himself with a home. All he has to do is to wait upon the town-major, at his office in Port-William, when he will receive the necessary order for his admission into the cadet corps at Barrack, about sixteen miles from Calcutta.

"He who has not these advantages must do the best his circumstances may afford; he will find temperance to be not only cheap, but indispensable; for if he should act so indiscreetly at the outset as to injure his health, a thousand privations and a certain increase of difficulties must follow. The first point must necessarily be to get under cover. This will not be found so easy as those who have never quitted England may suppose. It will be after much research that a small house will be had, and then only the bare walls; for no such thing is known in India as a furnished house to be let; and lodgings are, if possible, still more out of the question. Fortunately there are among the European shopkeepers in Calcutta some most respectable characters,—men distinguished for their urbanity, philanthropy, and generosity. Application should be instantly made to one of these firms for aid and advice.

Calcutta. The case should be candidly stated; and, in order to insure confidence, a deposit of money should be made either with them or at one of the banks. The consequences will be, that in a few hours some small tenement will be obtained, either on hire or granted as a temporary accommodation; and the whole of the articles really necessary will be provided at some one or other of the auctions which daily take place within the central parts of the town.¹

Calcutta is the great emporium of the East. By means of the Ganges and its tributary streams it has an uninterrupted water communication with the whole of the north of Hindustan. There are three artificial canals by which the communication is maintained with the upper country without passing through the unhealthy and dangerous channel of the Sunderbunds. But this channel has never yet been kept permanently open. The discovery of steam navigation has proved of eminent utility on the Ganges. Steam packets now proceed up the river with passengers, and effect a voyage in three weeks that used to occupy as many months. Government steam vessels, some of them armed, also ply upon the river. Calcutta, being so advantageously situated for commerce, trades extensively with almost every country in the world, and numbers of vessels of every form and description are constantly arriving in or departing from the river, which in the vicinity of the town presents the busiest scene imaginable. Numerous dock-yards have also been established, in which are built vessels of great burden and of admirable construction. Piece goods, shawls, indigo, silk, sugar, opium, and rum, are the staple commodities of export. Treasure is imported from all quarters. From London, the imports consist principally of articles of consumption for the European inhabitants, consisting of wine, porter, ale, confectionaries, and generally of all the finer manufactures.

In 1808 a bank was established at Calcutta, under the name of the Calcutta Bank. Its capital amounts to fifty lacs of rupees, of which ten were subscribed by government, and the remainder by individuals. There are besides three private banks, and it is estimated that the paper circulation amounts to one crore of rupees, or one million sterling. There are twelve insurance companies; and in 1825 there were published two daily newspapers, besides the Government Gazette and the India Gazette twice a week, and one weekly paper. There were two native weekly newspapers in Persian, and two in Bengalee, to which in 1826 another was added.

The institutions for education in Calcutta are numerous, of which the principal are, the Madressa or Mahomedan college, founded in 1780, for the instruction of the Mussulman youth in the Arabic and Persian languages, and in Mahomedan law; the college of Fret William, begun in 1801, for instructing the public servants of the Company in the native languages of the country, namely, the Hindustanee, Bengalee, Persian, and Arabic, now a flourishing and well-regulated institution, in which, at the annual examinations, great proficiency is displayed by the students; the Sanscrit College, for which a handsome building has been erected, founded in 1821, for the instruction of the natives in the Sanscrit language and Brahminical literature, and also in the English language and literature; the Anglo-Indian College, established originally by respectable natives, chiefly for the instruction of Hindu youths in the English language; Bishop's College, for the instruction of missionaries in the languages of the

East; and a Medical School for native doctors, established at Calcutta in 1822. In 1823 a committee of public instruction was formed, who are authorized to exercise a superintendence over all government seminaries, and to give an impulse, as well as a judicious direction, to efforts made for diffusing instruction among the Hindus. There are numerous missionary societies and institutions, with extensive establishments for education,² as well as various other schools and institutions, religious and charitable. A free school has been established, which Bishop Heber terms a noble institution, at which between 200 and 300 boys and girls are boarded, besides day scholars. They are taught according to Dr Bell's system. Some few of the scholars are Arminian Christians, and there are one or two Hindus. There is also the Armenian Academy and a grammar school for the instruction of the Indo-British youth in classical literature. Under the patronage of a society of European ladies, native schools were established in 1821, with female teachers. Formerly no instance was ever known of an Indian female being instructed in reading, writing, or sewing. In 1826, 600 female Hindu pupils were taught in the various schools of Calcutta;³ and in the indigenous schools, which are taught by native masters, and in which the parents of the boys pay for their education, the number of pupils amounts to nearly 3000.⁴ There are two schools for the education and maintenance of the children of Europeans in the military service of the Company, one for the children of officers, and another for those of the privates; and there are several literary and scientific societies. The Asiatic Society still continues its sittings, and publishes its Transactions, which contain much interesting information concerning the history, literature, languages, and antiquities of Asia. The charitable institutions are numerous, namely, the Bethel Union, the Seaman's Friend Society, the Military Orphan Society, the Military Widow's Fund, Lord Clive's Fund, the King's Military Fund, the Marine Pension Fund, the Civil Fund, the Mariner's and General Widow's Fund, the Presidency General Hospital, the Native Hospital, the Hospital for Native Lunatics, the Government Establishment for Vaccination, the Charitable Fund for Distressed Europeans, the European Female Orphan Society.

The supreme court consists of a chief justice and two puisne judges, all nominated by the crown. Its jurisdiction extends to all British subjects in India, and to all civil actions between natives, or between natives and Europeans. Criminal cases are tried in this court by a jury consisting exclusively of British subjects, as also all criminal charges against the Company's servants, and all civil actions in which the Company or any of its servants are concerned; but it takes no cognizance of the land revenues. The law practitioners attached to this court are fourteen attorneys and six barristers.

The population of Calcutta, which is stated by some to amount to 500,000, by others to 700,000, is composed of persons from every quarter of the world. British and other Europeans, Armenians, Persians, Chinese, Hindoos, and Mahomedans, are all seen mixing in the streets of this metropolis. The occupations of these various classes are nearly what might be expected in the luxurious capital of a great empire, and in so great an emporium of maritime commerce. Public officers, lawyers, physicians, merchants, and their families, make up the bulk of the British inhabitants. The natives and foreigners of respectability are mostly engaged in trade, or living upon their

¹ These are, the Calcutta Auxiliary Church Missionary Society, the Church Missionary Association, Diocesan Committee for the Distribution of Bibles and the Conversion of the Hindus, the Bengal Missionary Society, the Baptist Missionary Society, an Auxiliary Bible Society, &c.

² See Heber's *Journey through the Upper Provinces of India*.

³ *Asiatic Annual Register*, vol. xix.

Calcutta. property, and the lower classes are principally composed of retail-dealers, mechanics, and servants.

The most various estimates are given of the population of Calcutta; and it is doubtful if there be any correct census. In 1752 the number of houses within the Company's bounds was estimated at 51,132, and the constant inhabitants at 409,056. In 1802 the police magistrates estimated the population at 600,000. In 1810 the chief judge Sir Henry Russel computed the population at between 400,000 and 500,000 inhabitants. In 1819 the School Society's estimate amounted to 750,000; and in 1822 the following census was returned:

Christians.....	13,138
Mahomedans.....	48,161
Hindus.....	118,203
Chinese.....	414

179,916

From these different estimates it appeared to the magistrates that the resident population might be estimated at 200,000, and those going and coming at 100,000; and that the medium estimate of 300,000 would therefore be not far from the truth.

The British merchants form a most respectable class of men, and contribute essentially to the prosperity of the settlement; many of them are possessed of large fortunes, and live in a style of suitable splendour. The Armenians are the most numerous body of foreign merchants in Calcutta. They trade extensively to all parts of India and China, are uncommonly diligent and attentive to business, and are considered to have the most minute intelligence from foreign ports of any other body of merchants. The native bankers, agents, and money-dealers, are numerous. Though formerly timorous, the Hindu now adventures in almost every species of mercantile speculation; and cloths belonging to the native merchants, to the amount of L.1,000,000 sterling, are generally lying for sale in the warehouses of Calcutta. The native merchants of an inferior class engross nearly the whole of the retail trade of Calcutta, under the titles of Banians, Sircars, and Writers; and they are generally described as fond of money to excess, and most unprincipled in all their dealings.

The English society in Calcutta is of the best description, and numerous fetes are given during the cold season, which lasts from September to April, on a splendid scale, by the governor-general and other public functionaries, as well as by individuals. There are public subscription assemblies, besides select evening parties under the name of conversaziones, enlivened by music, dancing, cards, and other amusements. There is a theatre, supported by amateur performers; and public concerts are given, which are also supported by amateur talent. The usual mode of visiting is in palanquins. But many of the British have carriages adapted to the climate; and the breed of horses having been greatly improved, it is the universal practice to drive out between sunset and dinner; and as it becomes dark, servants go out with torches and meet their masters, and run before their carriages, though going at a rapid rate, for a very long time. The British inhabitants of India are distinguished by their hospitable dispositions, and are most liberal to all who call on them for aid. It is only during the cold season that it is possible to venture abroad in the heat of the day, which, in the rest of the year, is devoted to repose. The hot season begins in April. Every day the heat increases until the middle of June, when the periodical rains begin, which last till August. The weather then being extremely close, is more oppressive and more unhealthy than before. The thermometer throughout the year generally ranges between 75° and 95°, but frequently rises to 100° and 110°.

It was in 1690 that the English, in virtue of a firman granted by Aurungzebe, founded a factory at Calcutta, which was then a village, the houses of which were scattered about in clusters of ten or twelve each, and the inhabitants chiefly husbandmen; and in 1696, in consequence of the disturbed state of Bengal, they were allowed to raise works of defence. To the southward of Chanderpore extended a forest; and between Kidderpore and the forest were two villages, where now stand Fort William and the esplanade. In 1717 there was a small straggling village, surrounded by puddles of water, where now stand the elegant houses at Chowringhee, and the town extended to Chitpore Bridge; but the intervening space consisted of ground covered with jungle. In 1752 a ditch was dug round a considerable part of the town, as a barrier against the incursions of the Maharrattas. About this time the town was garrisoned by three hundred Europeans, who were frequently employed in conveying the Company's vessels from Patna, loaded with saltpetre, piece goods, opium, and raw silk. The trade of Bengal alone supplied rich cargoes for fifty or sixty ships annually, besides what was carried on in small vessels to the adjacent countries. It was this flourishing state of Calcutta which probably induced the nabob Surajah Dowlah to attack it in the year 1756. Having had the fort of Cosimbazar delivered up to him, he marched against Calcutta with all his forces, amounting to seventy thousand horse and foot, with four hundred elephants, and invested the place on the 15th of June. Previous to any hostilities, however, he wrote a letter to Mr Drake, the governor, offering to withdraw his troops, on condition that he would pay him his duty on the trade for fifteen years past, defray the expense of his army, and deliver up the black merchants who were in the fort. This being refused, he attacked one of the redoubts at the entrance of the town; but was repulsed with great slaughter. On the 16th he attacked another advanced post, but was likewise repulsed with great loss. Notwithstanding this disappointment, however, the attempt was renewed on the 18th, when the troops abandoned these posts and retreated into the fort; on which the nabob's troops entered the town, and plundered it for twenty-four hours. An order was then given for attacking the fort; for which purpose a small breast-work was thrown up, and two twelve-pounders mounted upon it, but without firing oftener than two or three times an hour. The governor then called a council of war, when the captain of the train informed them that there was not ammunition in the fort to serve three days, in consequence of which the principal ladies were sent on board the ships lying before the fort. They were followed by the governor, who declared himself a quaker, and left the place to be defended by Mr Holwell, the second in council. Besides the governor, four of the council, eight gentlemen of the Company's service, four officers, and a hundred soldiers, with fifty-two free merchants, captains of ships, and other gentlemen, escaped on board the ships, where were also fifty-nine ladies, with thirty-three of their children. The whole number left in the fort was about two hundred and fifty effective men, with Mr Holwell, four captains, five lieutenants, six ensigns, and five sergeants; as also fourteen sea-captains, and twenty-nine gentlemen of the factory. Mr Holwell then having held a council of war, divided three chests of treasure among the discontented soldiers, making them large promises also, if they behaved with courage and fidelity; after which he boldly stood on the defence of the place, notwithstanding the immense force which opposed him. The attack was very vigorous; the enemy having got possession of the houses, galled the English from thence, and drove them from the bastions; but they themselves were

Caldarium several times dislodged by the fire from the fort, which killed an incredible number, with the loss of only five English soldiers the first day. The attack, however, was continued till the afternoon of the 20th, when many of the garrison being killed and wounded, and their ammunition almost exhausted, a flag of truce was hung out. Mr Holwell intended to avail himself of this opportunity to make his escape on board the ships, but they had fallen several miles down from the fort, without leaving even a single boat to facilitate the escape of those who remained. In the mean time, however, the back gate was betrayed by the Dutch guard; and the enemy, entering the fort, killed all they first met, and took the rest prisoners.

The fort was taken before six in the evening; and, in an hour after, Mr Holwell had three audiences of the nabob, the last being in the darbar or council. In all these the governor had the most positive assurances that no harm should happen to any of the prisoners. As soon as it was dark they were collected, to the number of a hundred and forty-six; and the guard, by pressing on them with presented muskets, and by clubs and simitars, forced them into the Black Hole prison, a dungeon about eighteen feet square, in which, out of a hundred and forty-six, only twenty-three persons came out alive in the morning, and most of them in a high putrid fever.

The injuries which Calcutta suffered at this time, however, were soon repaired. The place was retaken by Admiral Watson and Colonel Elphinstone in 1787; Surajah Dowlah was defeated, deposed, and put to death; and Meer Jaffer, who succeeded him in the nabobship, engaged to pay an immense sum for the indemnification of the inhabitants. Since that time the immense acquisition of territory by the British in this part of the world, and the constant state of security enjoyed by this city, have raised it to its present prosperity and splendour. Fort William stands in long. 88. 28. E. lat. 22. 33. N. (r.)

CALDAIUM, in the ancient baths, denoted a brazen vessel or cistern, placed in the hypocaustum, full of hot water, to be drawn thence into the *piscina* or bath, to give it the necessary degree of heat. In this sense the *caldarium* stands contradistinguished from the *tepidarium* and *frigidarium*.

CALDAIUM also denoted the stove or sudatory, being a close vaulted room, in which, by hot dry fumes, without water, people were brought to a profuse sweat. In this sense *caldarium* was the same with what was otherwise denominated *vaparium*, *sudatorium*, and *laconium*; and in the Greek baths, *hypocaustum*, *vesuvium*.

CALDERINUS, DOMITIUS, a learned critic, born at Calderia, near Verona. He read lectures upon polite literature at Rome with great reputation, and was the first who ventured to write upon the most difficult of the ancient poets. He died very young in 1477.

CALDERON DE LA BARCA, DON PENRO, a celebrated Spanish dramatic author, was born in 1600. Having early completed his studies, he attached himself to some patrons about court; but being soon disgusted with this state of dependence he enlisted as a common soldier, and made several campaigns in Italy and the Low Countries. During this time, however, he cultivated a taste for dramatic poetry; and Philip IV., who was a passionate admirer of the drama, hearing people speak highly of the talents of our author, and thinking that he might confer éclat on the court theatre, invited Calderon to Madrid in 1636, made him a knight of the order of St Jago, supplied the expense of the representation of his pieces, and consulted him as to the arrangement of all public festivals and solemnities. It is also said that, during the minority of Louis XIV. Calderon visited Paris, and composed verses in praise of Anne of Austria. In 1652, he devoted him-

self to the church, and became a canon at Toledo. From this period till that of his death, which happened in 1687, he abandoned dramatic composition, except on sacred subjects. His works are very numerous, exceeding, we believe, fifteen hundred. No nation, in fact, can boast so many prolific writers as Spain. Lopez de Vega, for instance, is said to have composed two thousand comedies; a fertility which would be less surprising if the pieces themselves were of an inferior order, or destitute of merit; but, though deformed by the most extraordinary faults, they are at the same time enlivened by brilliant conceptions of genius and fancy. It must, however, be admitted that Virrey, and particularly Lopez and Calderon, had begun, even in the age of Cervantes, to corrupt the Spanish drama. Before their time, the productions of Castillejo and of Juan de la Cueva were more regular, though less forcible, spirited, and interesting; but after their appearance, the unities were totally disregarded, and dramatic writers assumed a degree of license which was pushed to the utmost height of extravagance. Cervantes opposed himself strenuously to this innovation, but in vain. Lopez and Calderon were as well acquainted with the established rules as Cervantes himself; but they knew only to despise them. The judicious author of the *Bibliothèque Espagnole* places Calderon on a footing of equality with Lopez de Vega, and says that this was the general opinion among their contemporaries. But Linguet in his *Théâtre Espagnol* hesitates not to place Calderon in the first rank; whilst Emmanuel de-Guerra says that Calderon imitated no one (*a ninguno imito*), and drew from his own imagination alone. This is indeed evident; for his delineations are deficient in truth, and his characters are altogether fantastical. The pieces of Calderon, like those of the Spanish theatre generally, are divided into three days or acts, and the scene is often changed. His comedies almost always exhibit vice triumphant; and it cannot with any truth be said of him, *castigat ridendo mores*. The *gracioso* or buffoon is, for the most part, one of his principal characters; and sometimes, as in *Heracles*, a couple of these personages are introduced. The piece of Calderon entitled *No al burlesco en el Amor* appears to have suggested to Molière the idea of his *Femmes Savantes*; while the one entitled *Nunca la peor es cierta* has been grossly disguised by Scarron in his comedy of *La Fausse Apparence*. Lastly, the infamous Collet d'Herbois caused to be represented, with a certain degree of success, in 1777, on one of the provincial theatres of France, and again in 1789, in the Théâtre Français at Paris, the *Payan Magistral*, imitated from the piece of Calderon entitled *Alcalde de Zalamea*. Besides his plays, Calderon composed a considerable number of *Autos Sacramentales*, or sacred pieces, analogous to those which are elsewhere denominated *Mysteries*, *Acts of the Saints*, and *Moralities*. Calderon is not relished in France, and but little known in this country. In Germany, however, he enjoys a great reputation. M. Schlegel has translated some of his best pieces; while his *Constant Prince*, and *Life is a Dream*, have been repeatedly represented with success on the boards at Weimar. The former of these pieces is generally considered as the master-piece of Calderon. The works of this author were reprinted at Madrid in 1736 and 1760, in ten volumes 4to; and a collection of his *Autos Sacramentales* appeared at Madrid in 1759, in six volumes 4to. His manuscript *Letters* are preserved among the archives of the house of Calderon.

CALDERWOOD, DAVID, an industrious historian of the church of Scotland, and a strenuous defender of its discipline, was born in the year 1575. He was educated in the university of Edinburgh, where he took the degree of A. M. in the year 1594; and having been early destined for the church, he devoted much attention to the re-

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quiste studies, and acquired a large fund of theological learning. Soon after the commencement of the ensuing century, he became minister of Crailing near Jedburgh, and he speedily began to take a very conspicuous part in the ecclesiastical proceedings of that period.

The king, who seems to have considered prelacy as a convenient instrument of arbitrary power, was extremely anxious to assimilate the church of Scotland to the church of England. Having succeeded in obtruding episcopacy, which was a very unwelcome guest, it was the next object of his solicitude to enlarge the authority and jurisdiction of the bishops: and regarding the end as highly desirable, he was not extremely scrupulous as to the means. His schemes were however opposed by many of the clergy, and were not relished by the great body of the people; nor was any individual more resolute or more consistent in his opposition than Calderwood, who spent the best years of his life in contending for purity of doctrine and simplicity of discipline. In the year 1608, when Law, bishop of Orkney, made his appearance in the capacity of visitor of the presbytery of Jedburgh, Calderwood, together with George Johnston, minister of Anercam, took a formal protest against his authority, and drew up a declinature, divided into various heads. Dr Abernethy, minister of Jedburgh, professed at first to support them in their opposition; but his zeal having very speedily abated, he was appointed perpetual moderator of the presbytery, and in due time became bishop of Caithness. Calderwood and Johnston had been elected members of the general assembly; but in order to exclude them from this and other ecclesiastical courts, the visitor ordered them to be "put to the horn" the very same night. The registration of the writ in the sheriff's books was with great difficulty prevented; but in consequence of Bishop Law's information, the king directed the privy council to punish them in an exemplary manner. By the intercession of the earl of Lothian with the chancellor and the earl of Dunbar, their punishment was restricted to confinement within the limits of their respective parishes.¹

With the benefit of episcopacy the king imparted to his native country the benefit of a Court of High Commission; an illegal and despotic tribunal, which, though not vested with such terrific powers, bore some resemblance to the Spanish inquisition. The English court was erected in the reign of Elizabeth, and was intended to maintain the dignity and peace of the church, by reforming, ordering, and correcting the ecclesiastical state and persons, and all manner of errors, heresies, schisms, abuses, offences, contempts, and enormities; but it is admitted by a writer who commonly touches despotism with a very gentle hand, that under the shelter of these general expressions, "means were found in that and the two succeeding reigns, to vest in the high commissioners extraordinary and almost despotical powers, of fining and imprisoning; which they exercised much beyond the degree of the offence itself, and frequently over offences by no means of spiritual cognizance."² This court was erected by virtue of an act of parliament; but, in 1610, James, of his sovereign authority, issued under the great seal of Scotland a commission for erecting a similar court in each of the two archbishoprics of St Andrews and Glasgow. It is very justly observed by Calderwood, who did not entirely escape the fangs of this new instrument of persecution, that "this commission put the king in possession of that which he had long time hunted for; to wit, of absolute power to use the bodies

and goods of his subjects at pleasure, without form or process of the common law."³

James paid a visit to Scotland in the year 1617. During the sitting of the parliament, which assembled on the 17th of June, the clergy held several meetings in the Little Church, one or more of the bishops being always present. Calderwood, whose zeal was never dormant, repaired to the church in order to learn the nature of their deliberations; and on hearing Knox, bishop of the Isles, make some allusion to the English convocation, he protested that such a meeting should not be acknowledged as a general assembly, or any other meeting equivalent to it, "or any wayes answerable to the English convocation-house, where the clergie convened in time of their parliaments." It is by no means improbable that such an innovation was secretly contemplated. Their chief consultations related to the temporal emoluments of the clergy, and he attempted to direct their attention to matters of greater importance than the augmentation of stipends, evidently alluding to what he conceived to be the danger of the church from foreign ceremonies and observances. He was assured that no alteration was to be apprehended, and that the bishops had given such a promise. Of their fidelity in keeping their promises, said the inflexible presbyter, we have had sufficient proof for the last sixteen years; and he was proceeding to enlarge on some kindred topics, when he was interrupted by Dr Whitford and Dr Hamilton, who reverted to the more interesting subject of stipends. Finding that they were not disposed to listen to his suggestions, he left the meeting with this expression of his indignation: "It is absurd to see men sitting in silks and sattins, and to cry povertie in the kirk, when puritie is departing." The two archbishops, on being informed of what had taken place, attended the meeting next day, and solemnly declared that no innovations were intended; but this declaration was so much at variance with unequivocal facts, that many of the clergy felt no small degree of alarm; and a considerable number of them having assembled in the music-school, resolved upon drawing up a remonstrance to his majesty. Two of the Edinburgh clergy, Hewat and Struthers, were appointed to prepare it; and when it was finally adjusted, Archibald Simson, minister of Dalkeith, was directed to sign it as clerk of the meeting; but the names of all those who attended were subscribed in a separate paper, which was delivered to him as a voucher to be used according to circumstances. He presented a copy to the clerk register, who refused to read it in parliament; and having been summoned before the High Commission, he declined to produce the signatures, and was committed as a prisoner to the castle of Edinburgh. This paper he had entrusted to the master of the music-school, Patrick Henryson, who delivered it to Calderwood. The minister of Crailing was therefore cited to appear at St Andrews on the eighth of July, and there to exhibit the roll of names, and "to answer for his mutinous and seditious assistance to the said assembly." Hewat and Simson were summoned at the same time, and they all made their appearance; but their examination was deferred till the twelfth, in order that it might take place in his majesty's presence. James conducted himself in his usual manner, but the stern and undaunted Calderwood was not to be overawed by any earthly authority which he conceived to be unjustly exercised. The king having at length whispered in the primate's ear, "his majesty," he stated, "saith that if ye will not be content to be suspend-

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¹ Calderwood's Hist. of the Church of Scotland, p. 570, 599.

² Blackstone's Commentaries on the Laws of England, vol. iii. p. 68.—"What is this," says Calderwood, "but the Spanish Inquisition? Set me up this throne, Satan shall set up papistry, or any other religion whatsoever, in short process of time." (*Atter of Da-mascus*, p. 36.)

³ Calderwood's Hist. p. 612.

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ed spiritually, ye shall be suspended corporally." Undismayed by this declaration, he replied, "Sir, my body is in your majesty's hands to do with it as it pleaseth your majesty; but as long as my body is free, I will teach, notwithstanding of their sentence." Spotswood describes him as "carrying himself unrepentantly, and breaking forth into speeches not becoming a subject;" nor is it difficult to conceive that the archbishop of St Andrews and the minister of Crailing may have formed a very different estimate of the speeches which became a subject placed in such circumstances.

Hewat, adhering to the protestation, was deprived, and confined in the town of Dundee; but as he had obtained a grant of the temporalities of Crossragwell abbey, he was not left without a provision. Simson, who had aggravated the original offence by writing a letter in which he disparaged the English bishops, likewise received sentence of deprivation, and was for several months detained in prison; but on making his submission, he was at length reinstated. A similar sentence was pronounced on Calderwood, who was committed to prison at St Andrews, and was afterwards removed to Edinburgh. The privy council, which long exercised an undefined and despotic jurisdiction, ordained him to be banished from the kingdom for refusing to acknowledge the sentence of the High Commission; and the whole proceedings in this case exhibit a curious example of the arbitrary and iniquitous administration of that period. On giving security to banish himself from the kingdom before the ensuing Michaelmas, and not to return without the royal license, he was released from prison. He accompanied Lord Cranston to Carlisle, where that nobleman presented to the king a petition in his favour; but although the suit appears to have been very zealously urged, it was followed by no beneficial result. The king inveighed against Calderwood, and at last repelled the noble baron with his elbow. The application was however renewed after an interval of two hours: his lordship entreated him to permit the petitioner to remain in Scotland till the last day of April, on account of the danger of a winter voyage, and in order to receive his stipend for the current year; but his majesty was graciously pleased to declare, that it was no matter if he begged his bread, and "as for the season of the year, if he drowned in the seas, he might thank God that he hath escaped a worse death;" a princely answer, and full of Christian comfort! The subsequent application of Lord Cranston to the privy council, and to the bishops, was attended with no better success; and if they had been more inclined to lenient measures, the unbending spirit of Calderwood, who would neither make an unqualified confession of his supposed errors of conduct, nor promise strict obedience to the new regulations in the church, left very little room to hope for the remission of his sentence.

He continued for a considerable time to linger in his native country; and during this interval he began the publication of his anonymous works in support of the presbyterian cause. In the year 1618 he printed a Latin tract on the polity of the church of Scotland. The general assembly, which met at Perth on the 25th of August, gave a new impulse to his mind; and in 1619 he produced an English work, in which he undertook to demonstrate

the nullity of the assembly itself, and the unlawfulness of its five articles, relating to kneeling at the communion, the observance of festivals, confirmation, private baptism, and private communion. They who hazarded the peace of the church and kingdom by such innovations as these, had not sufficiently reflected on all the consequences which ensued; nor are we disposed to blame the faithful presbyters for their very strenuous opposition to some of the articles of Perth. Kneeling at the communion, for example, may in itself be a very harmless ceremony; but this was not the position of the apostles when our Saviour instituted the sacred rite; and such a position was considered by many of our ancestors as too much connected with the adoration of the host, and the doctrine of transubstantiation. Some of the episcopals still indulge in certain obsolete speculations as to the eucharist being a feast upon a sacrifice.¹ A sacrifice requires a priest, a priest can only be ordained by a bishop; and without a bishop, a priest, and an altar of sacrifice, they suppose that no church can stand on a secure foundation. But the character and destiny of churches are not to be decided by earthly judges; and we leave them in the quiet possession of their mystical reveries, which nevertheless we cannot help suspecting of a very intimate connexion with the spirit of popery.

While Calderwood was still lurking in Scotland, an attempt was made to apprehend him at Edinburgh in the house of James Cathkin, a bookseller; but the officers neither found him nor any copies of his obnoxious publication relative to the *Perth Assembly*. Cathkin had visited London in the prosecution of his business; and being immediately taken into custody, he underwent two examinations, one of them in presence of his majesty, who was moved with violent indignation.² His alleged offence was that of being concerned in printing or publishing the book, and receiving the author into his house. In reference to the people of Edinburgh, whom he had not found sufficiently submissive to the royal will, James uttered the following paternal wish: "The Devil rive their souls and bodies all in collops, and cast them in hell!" The worthy bookseller, who conducted himself with manly firmness, was released from prison after having been detained for eight days. Calderwood was in the mean time concealed at Cranston, in a secret apartment allotted to him by Lady Cranston, who rendered him many services. He afterwards removed from one place to another, till the 27th of August 1619, when he embarked at Newhaven, and sailed for Holland, "with his purse well filled by the wives of Edinburgh."³ Where he chiefly resided in that country, we are not informed; but Bishop Guthrie states, "in the time of his exile he had seen the wild follies of the English Brownists in Arnheim and Amsterdam."⁴ His exile may have been attended with some advantages, by enabling him to extend his acquaintance with men of learning, and to collect books in his own department of study. His controversial ardour was still unabated: during his residence in Holland he published various works, and, among the rest, his *Altus of Damascus*. At one period, his enemies supposed him to be dead; and he has recorded a very extraordinary attempt to impose upon the world a recantation fabricated in his name.⁵ "Patrick

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¹ Spotswood's Hist. of the Church of Scotland, p. 534.

² See Bishop Jolly's Christian Sacrifice in the Eucharist. Aberdeen, 1631, 12mo. See likewise Dr Geddes's Modest Apology for the Roman Catholics of Great Britain, p. 164. Lond. 1800, 8vo.

³ Of his examination Cathkin has given a curious account, printed in the *Bannatyne Miscellany*, vol. L. p. 199. Edinb. 1827, 4to.

⁴ Calderwood's Hist. p. 750. He imputes this expression to the archbishop of St Andrews.

⁵ Memoirs of Henry Guthrie, late Bishop of Dunkeld, p. 78 edit. Glasg. 1748, 12mo.

⁶ Calderwood's Recantation: or, a tripartite Discourse, directed to arch of the Ministerie, and others in Scotland, that refuse Conformity to the Ordinances of the Church: wherein the Causes and bad Effects of such Separation, the illegall Proceedings against the refractory, and Nullitie of their Cause, are softly launced, and they lovingly invited to the Uniformitie of the Church. Lond. 1623, 4to.

Calderwood.

Scot, a landed gentleman beside Falkland, having wasted his patrimone, had no other meane to recover his estate, but by some unlawful shift at court. He set forth a recantation under the name of a banished minister, Mr David Calderwood, who, because of his long sickness before, was supposed by many to have been dead. The king, as he alleged himself to some of his friends, furnished him the matter, and he set the matter down in forme. This course failing, he went over to Holland, and sought the said Mr David in sundrie townes, specially in Amsterdam, in the month of November. It appeareth his purpose was to dispatch the said Mr David. After he had stayed at Amsterdam 20 dayes, and made diligent inquiry, he was informed that the said Mr David was returned home privately to his own native country. How he cused a distressed Englishman after his returning, I passe by. After the death of King James, he set out a pamphlet full of lies, entituled *Vox vera*, but as true as *Lupinus Vera Historia*. Notwithstanding of all his godless and unlawful shifts, he died soon after so poore that he had not wherewith to bear the charges of his burial; but it behoved the bishop of Ross, being then present where he departed, to bear the charges, for the good service he had done to the king and the bishops.¹

From the date of this narrative, Calderwood appears to have returned to Scotland in the year 1624. He was still found to be the most redoubtable champion of presbytery; and after the abolition of episcopacy, he was appointed minister of Pencaltland, in the county of Haddington, but the date of this appointment has not been ascertained. The following statement proceeds from an episcopalian writer: "David Calderwood, a man of great reading and study, but very unhappy in his way of expressing himself, both which appeared in his *Abuse Damascenum*. He was at first very factious, and banished the kingdom by King James, yet was afterwards much neglected by that violent party, who judged him too moderate, though, from his book, none would imagine him guilty of it."² Baillie, in relating the proceedings of the general assembly in 1641, remarks, "it was regretted by the moderator that Mr David Catherwood, who deserved so well of our church, was so long neglected. He was recommended to the first commodious room. Likely he shall not be in haste provided. The man is sixty-six years old; his utterance is unpleasant; his carriage about the meetings of this assembly and before, has made him less considerable to divers of his former benefactors."³ Though not a member, he had repeatedly spoken with so much pertinency, that the moderator treated him with great forbearance, but at length the commissioner commanded him to be silent. In 1643 the assembly appointed Henderson, Calderwood, and Dickson, to prepare a directory for public worship. During the remainder of his life, he continued to take an active part in the affairs of the church; and as firmness may be nearly allied to obstinacy, he appears to have maintained his own opinions with habitual keenness. It was he that introduced the practice, which is now confirmed by long usage, of dissenting from the decision of the assembly, and requiring the protest to be entered in the record. In 1649, an act having been introduced respecting the election of ministers, he proposed that the

right of electing should be vested in the presbytery, leaving to the people the power of declaring their dissent, upon reasons of which it should be competent for the presbytery to judge; but this suggestion was not adopted; and, according to Baillie's statement, "Calderwood entered a very sharp protestation against our act, which he required to be registered. This is the first protestation we heard of in our time; and had it come from any other, it had not escaped censure."⁴

He devoted many years to the preparation of a history of the church of Scotland. In 1648 the general assembly urged him to complete the design, and voted him a yearly pension of eight hundred pounds.⁵ He left behind him an historical work of great extent, and of great value, not indeed as a masterly composition, but as a storehouse of authentic materials for history. The laborious author has incorporated many original documents which are not otherwise preserved, and has recorded an immense multiplicity of facts, which illustrate the civil as well as the ecclesiastical annals of the period to which his work relates. An abridgment, which appears to have been prepared by himself,⁶ was published after his death; but it is much to be regretted that his great work still remains in manuscript. Proposals for printing it were issued many years ago, but the plan did not meet with adequate encouragement; and, unless a similar plan should be adopted by the Bannatyne Club, we despair of seeing it carried into execution. The author's manuscript, which lately belonged to General Calderwood Durham, has been presented to the British Museum. A copy, transcribed under the inspection of Wodrow, is among the archives of the church; another belongs to the library of the university of Glasgow; and, as Dr Mc-Crie has stated, "in the Advocates Library, besides a complete copy of that work, there is a folio volume of it, reaching to the end of the year 1572. It was written in 1634, and has a number of interlineations and marginal alterations, differing from the other copies, which, if not made by the author's own hand, were most probably done under his eye."⁷

Calderwood died at Jedburgh on the 29th of October 1650,⁸ at the age of seventy-five. He appears to have been a man of unbending integrity, fearless in maintaining his opinions, and uniformly consistent in his professions; but as human virtues are never perfect, his decision of character had some tendency to deviate into that obstinacy of humour from which good men are not always exempted. With his honesty and piety he united no small portion of acuteness and learning. He was conversant with the fathers, schoolmen, and canonists, as well as the more recent theologians; and the shrewdness of his understanding enabled him to apply his learning with due effect.

His works are numerous; and as they were almost all published without the author's name, it is not easy to form a complete and accurate catalogue. The place of printing is omitted in all the original editions, but several, if not most of them, appear to have been printed in Holland. The following is a list of publications which we believe may be safely ascribed to Calderwood.

1. *De Regimine Ecclesie Scotticane brevis Relatio*. 1618, 8vo.—To this tract an answer was published by Archbishop Spotswood, under the title of "*Refutatio Li-*

Calderwood.

¹ Calderwood's Hist. of the Church of Scotland, p. 402.

² Middleton's Appendix to Spotswood's Hist. of the Church of Scotland, p. 20.

³ Baillie's Letters and Journals, vol. i. p. 311.

⁴ Baillie, vol. ii. p. 240.

⁵ See Dr Mc-Crie's Appendix to the Memoirs of Veitch and Bryson, p. 495, 501.

⁶ Mc-Crie's Life of Knox, vol. i. p. vi.—Some of his papers are preserved among Wodrow's MSS. in the Advocates Library. Two original letters from John Fagel to Calderwood occur in M. & P. No. 107-8.

⁷ Bannatyne Miscellany, vol. i. p. 208. Baillie, in a passage already quoted, mentions that Calderwood was sixty-six years old in 1641.

⁸ Baillie, vol. ii. p. 307.

Calder-
wood.

belli de Regimine Ecclesie Scoticanæ." Lond. 1620, 8vo. Calderwood replied in the *Vindicia* subjoined to his *Altare Damascusum*.

2. A Solution of Doctor Resolvts his Resolutions for Kneeling. 1619, 4to.—This is an answer to a book written by David Lindsay, D.D. who became bishop of Brechin, and afterwards of Edinburgh: "The Reasons of a Pastors Resolution, touching the reverend Receiuing of the holy Communion." Lond. 1619, 8vo.

3. Perth Assembly, &c. 1619, 4to.—This publication was followed by "A true Narration of all the Passages of the Proceedings in the Generall Assembly of the Church of Scotland, holden at Perth the 25 of August anno Dom. 1618: wherein is set downe the copy of his Maiesties Letters to the said Assembly; together with a iust Defence of the Articles therein concluded, against a seditious Pamphlet. By Dr Lyndesay, Bishop of Brechin." Lond. 1621, 4to.

4. A Defence of our Arguments against Kneeling in the act of Receiving the sacramental Elements of Bread and Wine, impugned by Mr Michelson. 1620, 8vo. 1638, 8vo.—This is an answer to a book entitled, "The Lawfulness of Kneeling in the act of Receiving the Sacrament of the Lordes Supper. Written by M. Iohn Michelson, Preacher of Gods Word at Byrrt-Yland." Saint Andrews, 1620, 8vo. In his preface, Calderwood remarks of his antagonist, "he hath given so notable proofe of profound knowledge in divinitie, and subtiltie in handling this controversie in this worthe work of his, that the bishop of St Andros (a man as voyd of learning as of good manners) hath made him a doctor." This is not a very decent manner of treating Spotswood, who was neither destitute of talents nor of learning.

5. A Dialogue betwixt Cosmophilus and Theophilus anent the urging of new Ceremonies upon the Kirke of Scotland. 1620, 8vo.

6. The Speech of the Kirke of Scotland to her beloved Children. 1620, 8vo.

7. Queres concerning the State of the Chvrch of Scotland. 1621, 8vo. 1638, 8vo.

8. The Altar of Damascus; or the Patern of the English Hierarchie and Church-Policie obtruded upon the Church of Scotland. 1621, 8vo.

9. The Course of Conformitie, as it hath proceeded, is concluded, should be refused. 1622, 4to.

10. A Reply to Dr Mortons generall Defence of the three nocent Ceremonies, &c. 1622, 4to.

11. A Reply to Dr Mortons particular Defence of the three nocent Ceremonies, &c. 1623, 4to.—Dr Morton, who was successively bishop of Chester, Lichfield, and Durham, had published "A Defence of the Innocencie of the three Ceremonies of the Chvrch of England; viz. the Surplice, Croase after Baptisme, and Kneeling at the Receiuing of the blessed Sacrament." Lond. 1619, 4to. This is the second impression.

12. Altare Damascusum; seu Politia Ecclesie Anglicane obtrusa Ecclesie Scoticanæ, a formalista quodam delineata, illustrata et examinata studio et opera Edwardi Didoclaui. Qui locis suis inserta Confutatio Paranesos Tileni ad Scotos, Genevensis, ut ait, Discipline Zelotas:

et adjecta Epistola Hieronymi Philadelphi de Regimine Ecclesie Scoticanæ; ejusque Vindicie contra Calumnias Johannis Spotsuodi, Fani Andreæ Pseudoecclesiæscopi, per anonymum. 1623, 4to. Lugd. Bat. 1708, 4to.—The application of the title may be learned from 2 Kings, xvi. 10. The work itself, which is an enlargement of his English *Altare of Damases*, contains a most formidable attack on the policy of the church of England; and, as Mr Peirce remarks, "the patrons of episcopacy have never yet answered it, how much soever their cause requires it."¹ A late writer, by some unaccountable inadvertency, has stated that "this book is a refutation of Linwood's Description of the Policy of the Church of England." William Lyndewode, an eminent canonist who became bishop of St David's, could certainly write no book about the protestant church of England, inasmuch as he died in 1446, nearly a century before the reformation. He is the compiler of a well-known work, entitled *Provinciale, seu Constitutiones Angliæ*, to which Calderwood frequently refers, among many other juridical and theological authorities. One of the books which he undertakes to refute bears the title of "Paranesis ad Scotos, Genevensis Discipline Zelotas, autore Dan. Tilenio Silesio." Lond. 1620, 8vo. Another able refutation was written by Sir James Sempie: "Scoti res ræpores Paranesis contra Danielis Tileni Silesii Paranesin ad Scotos, Genevensis Discipline Zelotas, conscriptum: cujus prima pars est, de Episcopali Ecclesie Regimine." Anno 1622, 4to.

13. An Exhortation of the particular Kirks of Christ in Scotland to their sister Kirk in Edinburgh. 1624, 8vo.

14. An Epistle of a Christian Brother, exhorting an other to keepe himselfe vndefiled from the present Corruptions brought in to the Ministration of the Lords Supper. 1624, 8vo.

15. A Dispyte vpon Communicating at ovr confused Communions. 1624, 8vo.

16. The Pastor and the Prelate; or Reformation ana Conformitie shortly compared by the Word of God, by Antiquity and the Proceedings of the ancient Kirk, &c. 1628, 4to.

17. A Re-examination of the five Articles enacted at Perth anno 1618; to wit, concerning the Communicantes Gesture in the act of Receiving, the Observation of Festival Dayes, episcopall Confirmation or Bishopping, the Administration of Baptisme and the Supper of the Lord in privat Places. 1636, 4to.

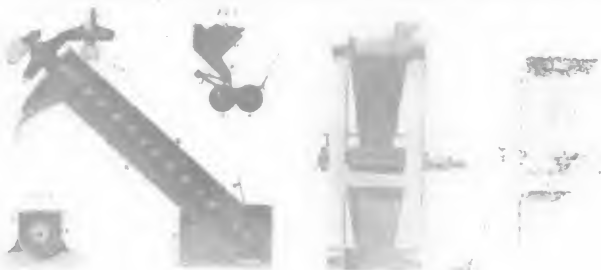
18. The Re-examination of two of the Articles abridged; to wit, of the Communicants Gesture in the act of Receiving, Eating, and Drinking; and the Observation of Festival Dayes. 1636, 8vo.

19. An Answer to M. I. Forbes of Corse his Peaceable Warning. 1638, 4to.—This is an answer to a tract written by Dr Forbes, professor of divinity in King's College, Aberdeen: "A peaceable Warning to the Subjects in Scotland; given in the year of God 1638." Aberdeen, 4to.

20. The true History of the Church of Scotland, from the beginning of the Reformation, unto the end of the Reigne of King James VI. etc. 1678, fol. (x.)

Calder-
wood.

¹ Peirce's Vindication of the Dissenters, p. 176, second edit. Lond. 1718, 8vo.





The church is a fine specimen of the English Gothic style, and is one of the most beautiful in the city. It was built by the Rev. John Smith, and is now the property of the Rev. John Smith.



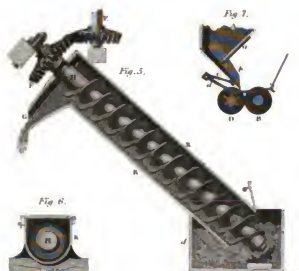
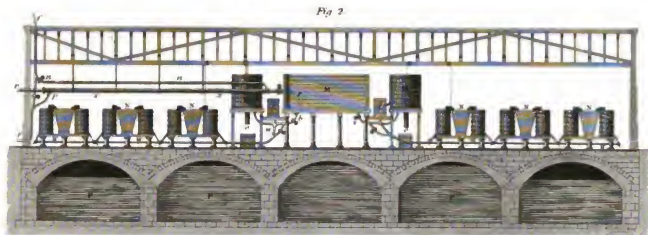
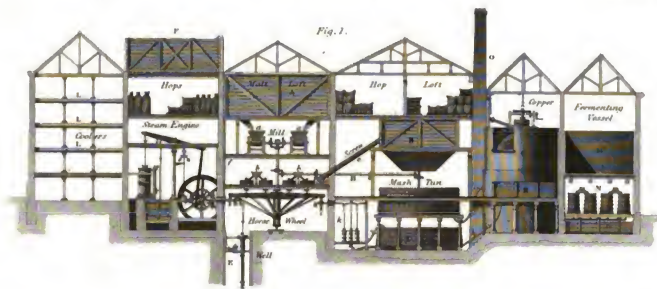
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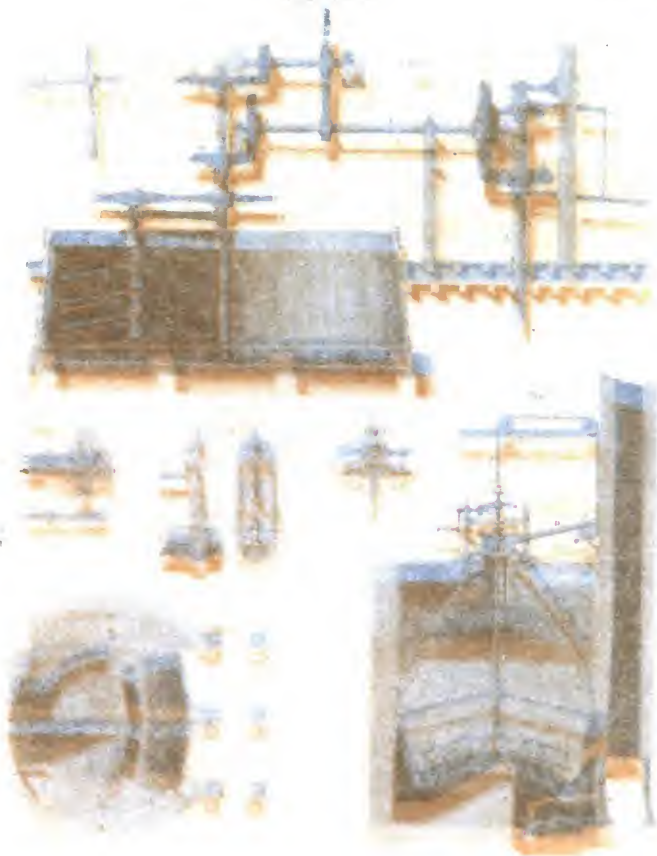


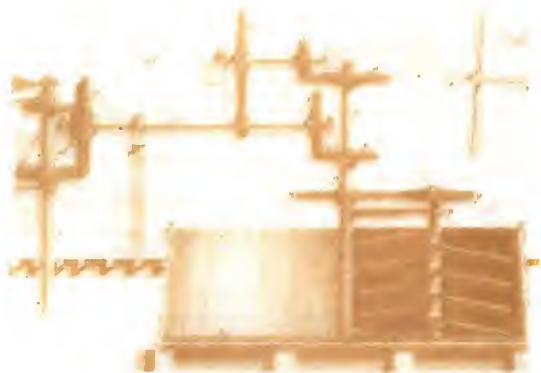
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Mashing Engine.

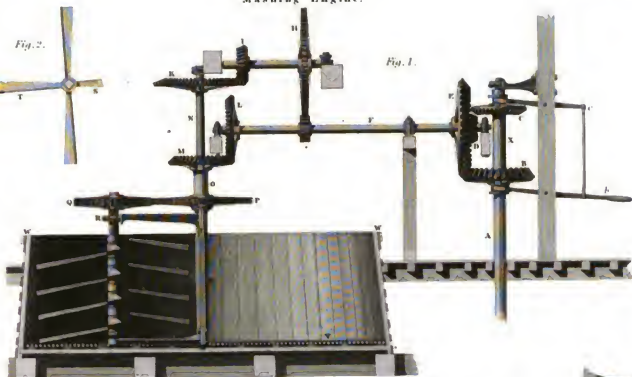


Fig. 3.



Fig. 6.



Fig. 7.



Fig. 3.

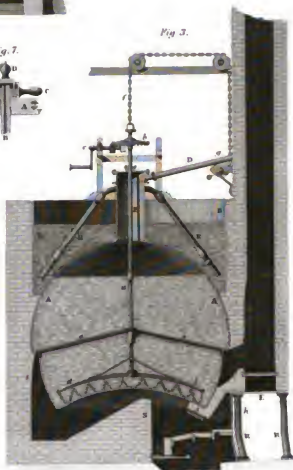
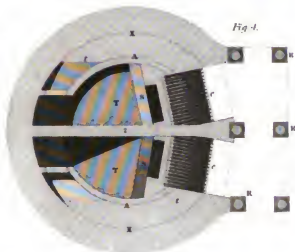
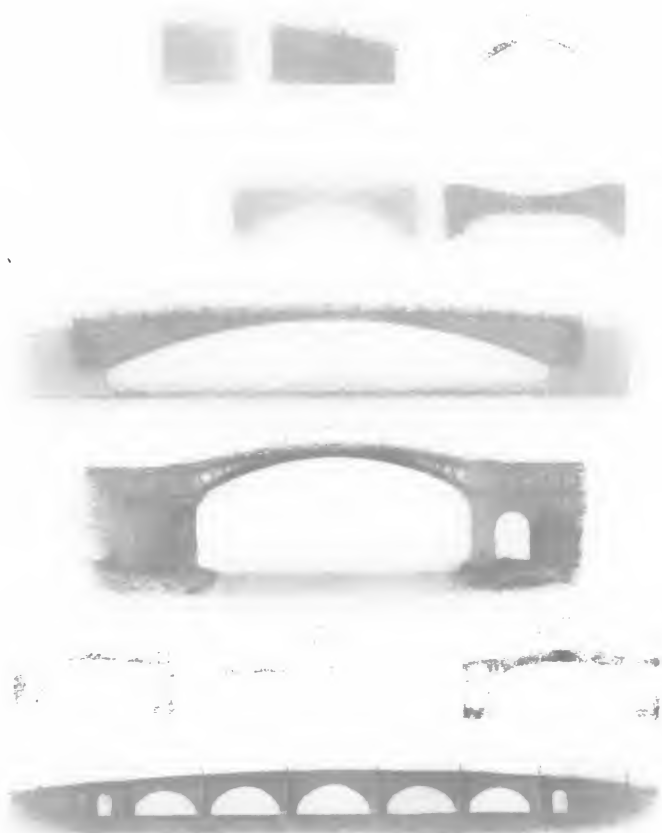
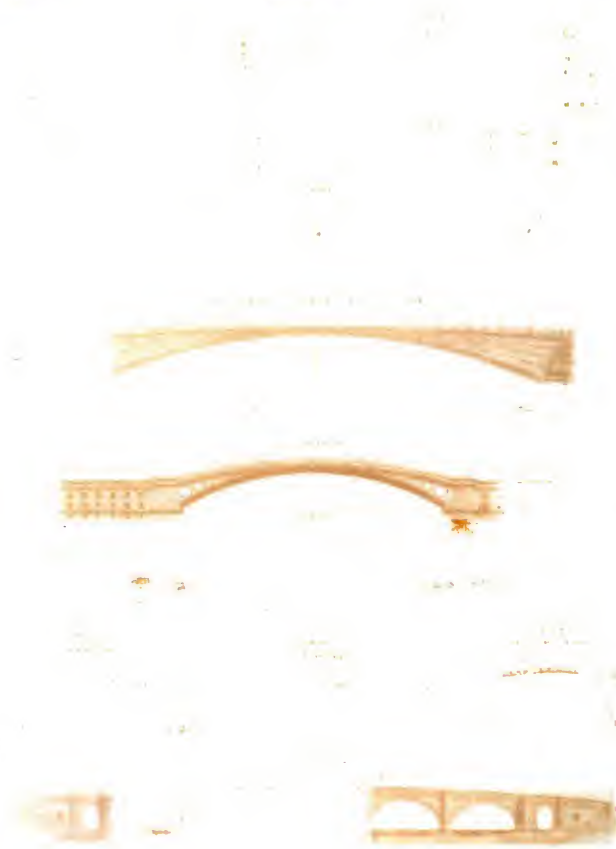
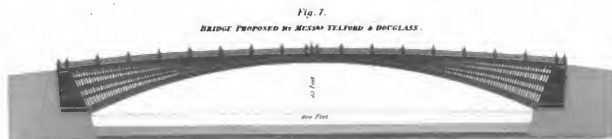
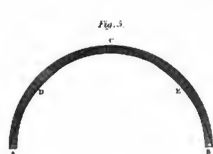


Fig. 4.









BRIDGE.

PLATE CXXVIII.

Fig 1.

BRIDGE OF THE LOUVE



Fig 2.

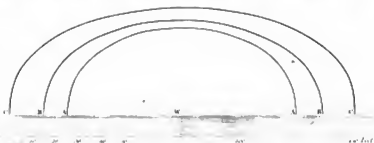


Fig 3.

VATNALL



Fig 4.

SOUTHWARK



Fig 5.

Plan



Fig 6.

LONDON OLD BRIDGE



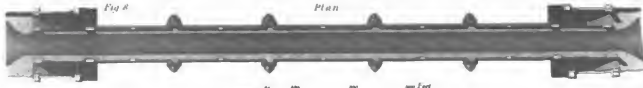
Fig 7.

LONDON NEW BRIDGE



Fig 8.

Plan



Exp. by W. & A. G. 1831







Page 2

M. J. P. WILSON AND D. G. A.



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SECTION OF .45 INCH. WITH THE CITY.

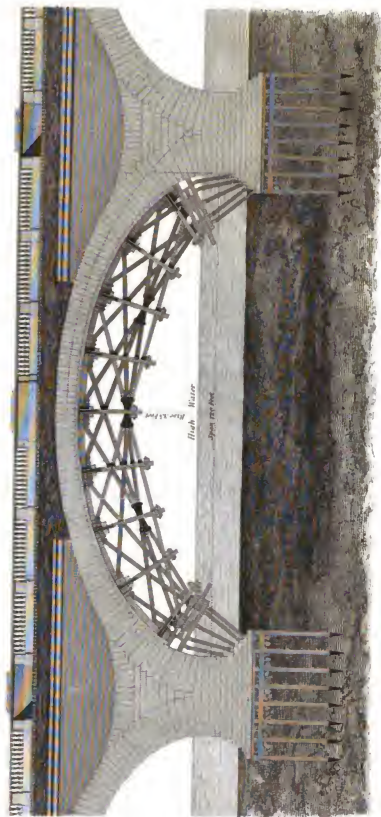


Fig. 3.

Fish Water
From the Boat

From the
University of
California, San
Diego

η	\dots	β	η_{∞}	\dots	η_0^*	η_f	η_f^*
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SECTION OF BRIDGE.

PLAN OF BRIDGE.



SECTION.

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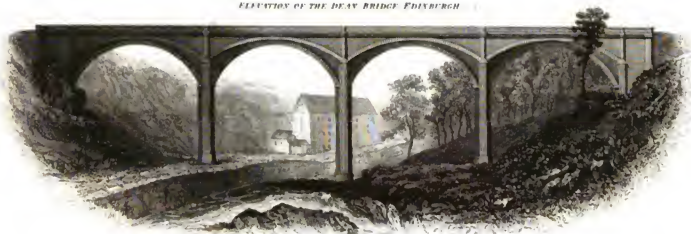
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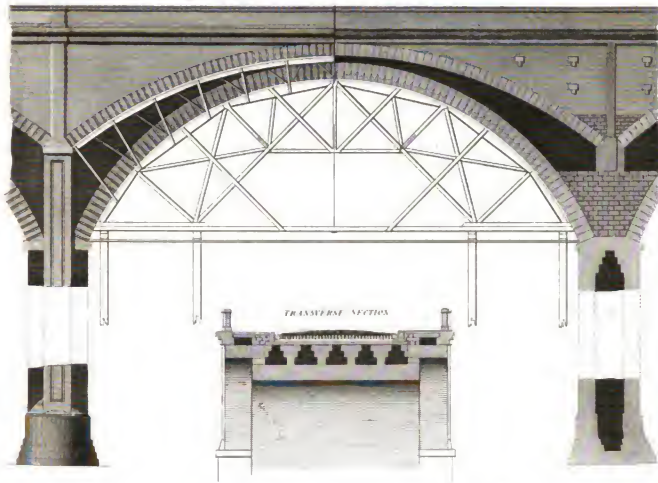
ELEVATION OF THE DEAN BRIDGE, EDINBURGH



ELEVATION AND CENTERING



LONGITUDINAL SECTION



TRANSVERSE SECTION

Fig. 1

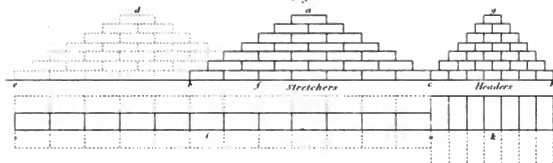
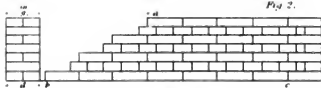


Fig. 2.



English Bond

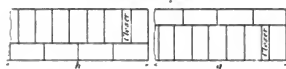
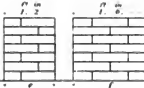


Fig. 3.



Flemish Bond

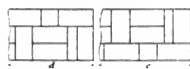


Fig. 4.

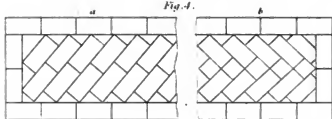


Fig. 5.

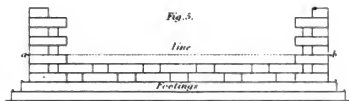


Fig. 6.

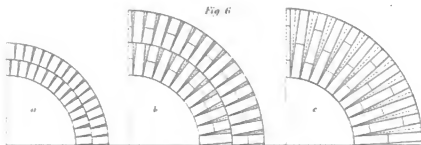


Fig. 10.

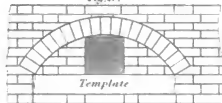


Fig. 9.

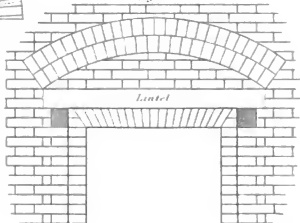


Fig. 7.

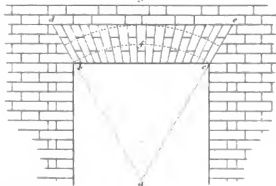


Fig. 8.

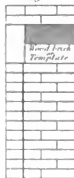




Fig. 13.



Fig 14

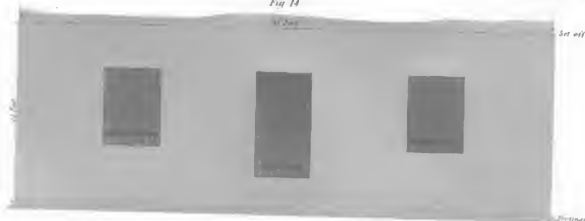


Fig 11

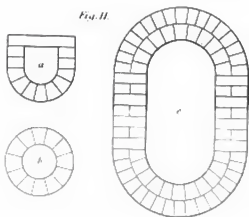


Fig 12



Fig 13

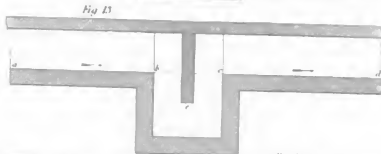


Fig 15



Unworked rubble walling

Fig 16



Worked rubble walling

Fig 17

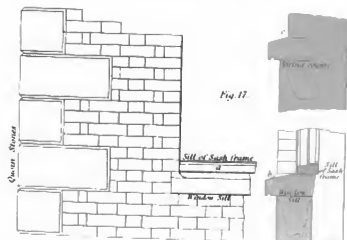


Fig 19

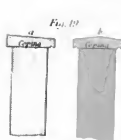


Fig 18

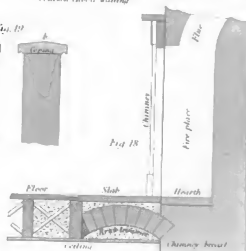


Fig. 20.



Fig. 21.

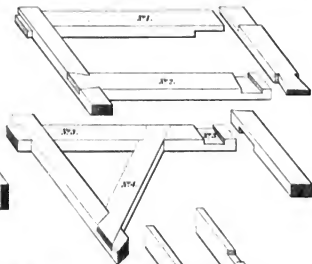


Fig. 22.

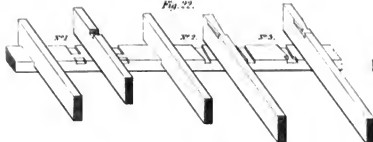


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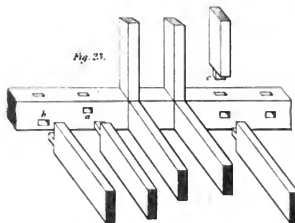


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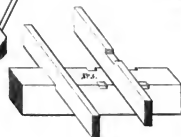
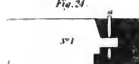


Fig. 25.

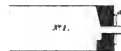
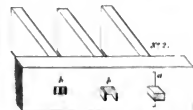
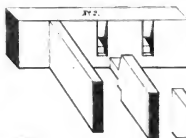


Fig. 26.



Flooring Joists N°1.

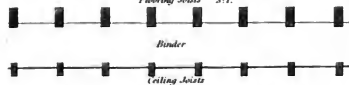
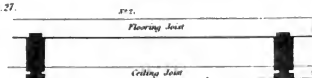


Fig. 27.



Ceiling Joists

Flooring Joists

Fig. 28.



Ceiling Joists

N°2.

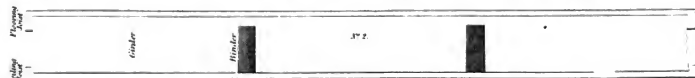




Fig. 1. A section of a wall or partition.

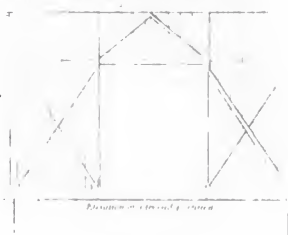


Fig. 2. A section of a wall or partition.

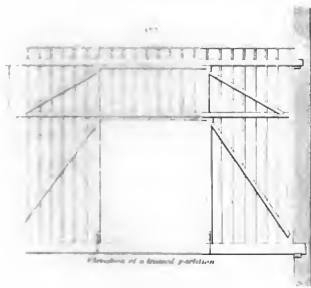


Fig. 3. A section of a wall or partition.

Fig. 4. A section of a wall or partition.

Fig. 29.

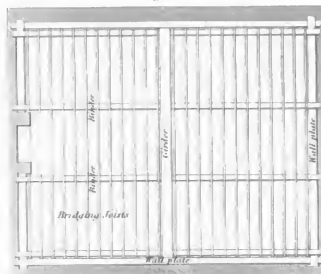
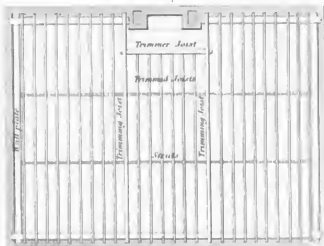
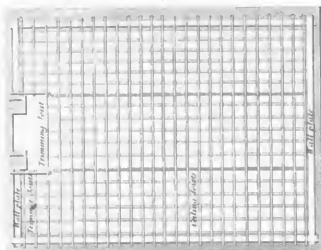
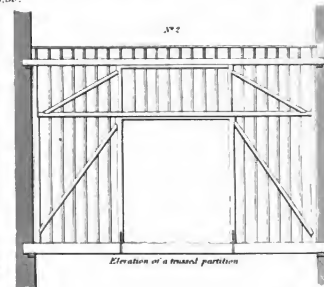
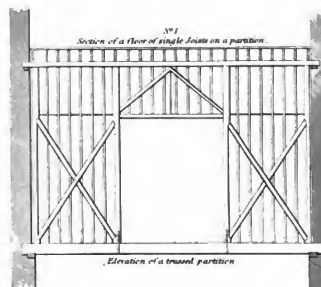


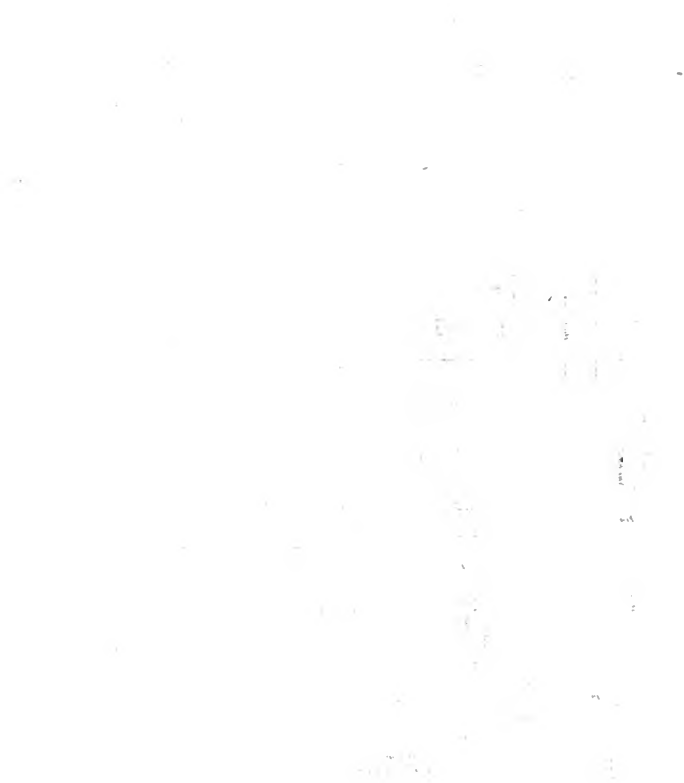
Fig. 30.



20-400 10-200 10-200 10-200



From the
point of view of author



Transverse Section of a window.

Inside elevation of a window.

Section of an inner door.

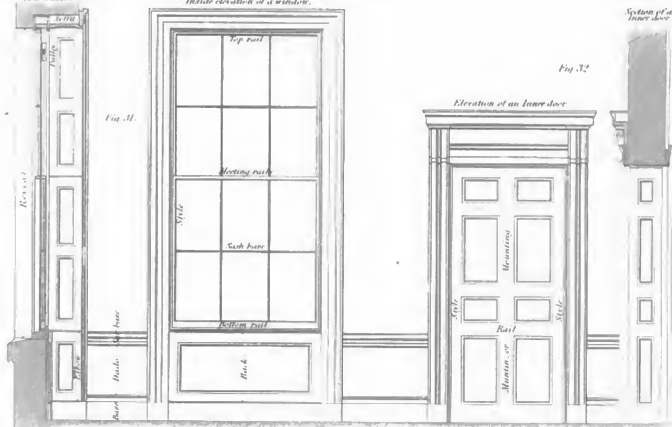
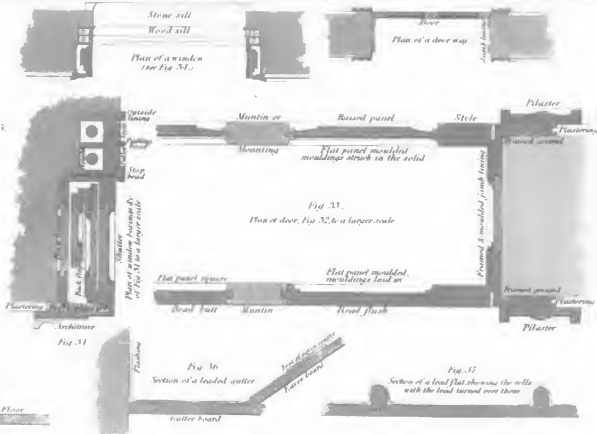


Fig. 34.

Fig. 35.

Plan of door, Fig. 32, & a larger scale.



Notes: Shade of a door-hinge to a larger scale (see Fig. 31.)

BURNING GLASS.

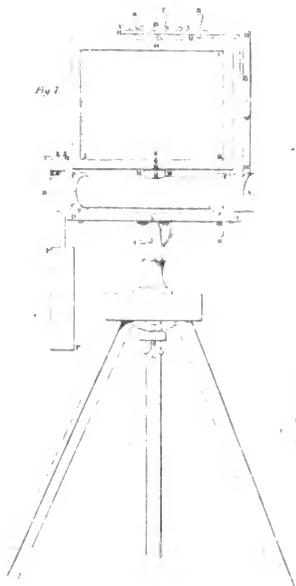
PLATE CO.

Fig. 1

Fig. 2

Fig. 3

Fig. 10





BURNING GLASS.

PLATE CXL.

Fig. 1.

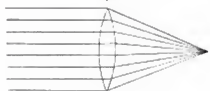


Fig. 2.

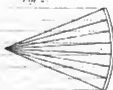


Fig. 3.

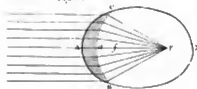


Fig. 4.



Fig. 5.



Fig. 7.

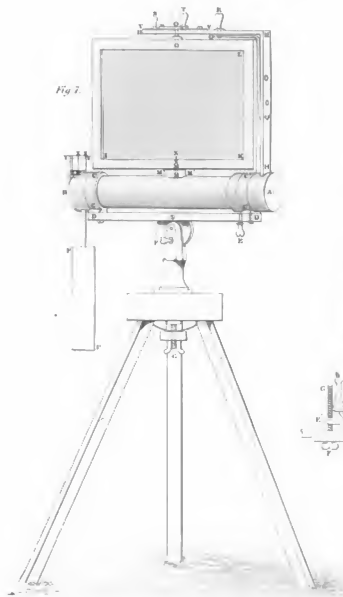


Fig. 8.

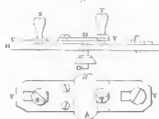


Fig. 11.



Fig. 12.



Fig. 9.



Fig. 10.



Fig. 6.





Fig. 1



Fig. 2



Fig. 3



Fig. 1.

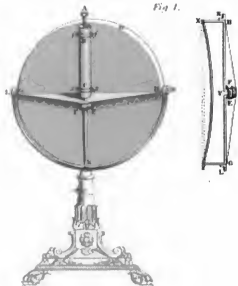


Fig. 2.



Fig. 3.

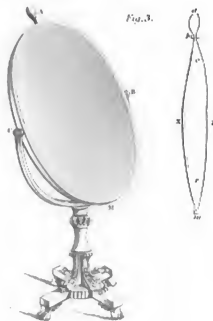


Fig. 4.



Fig. 5.

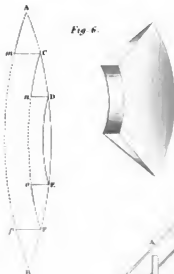


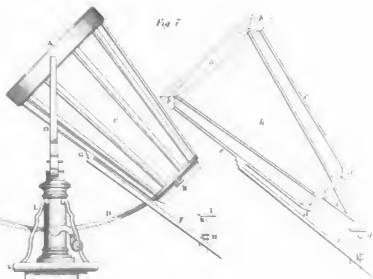
Fig. 6.

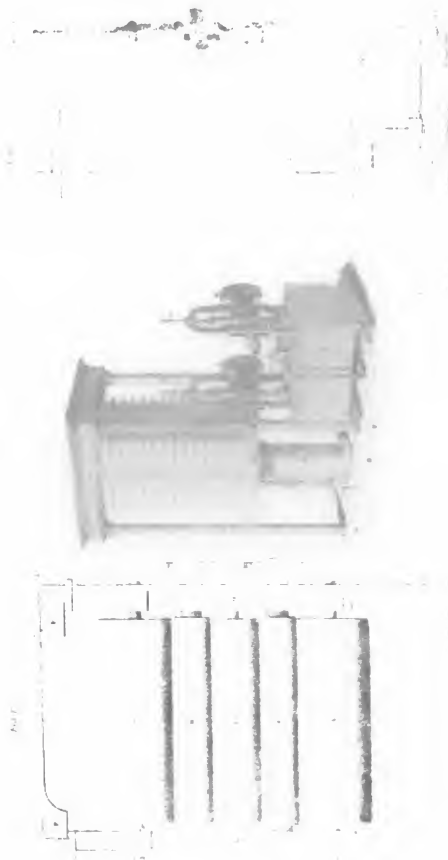


Fig. 7.



Fig. 8.





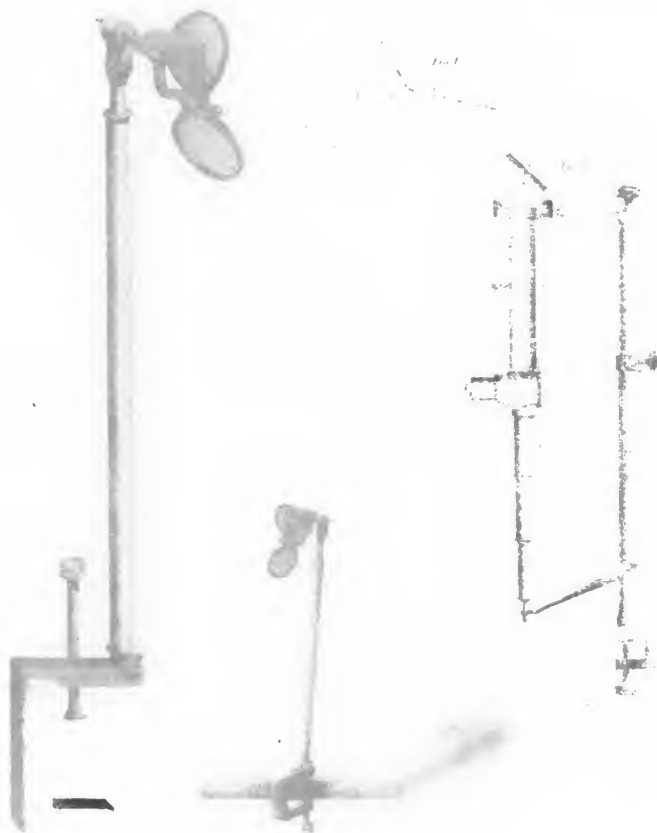




Fig. 2.



Fig. 1.

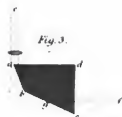


Fig. 3.

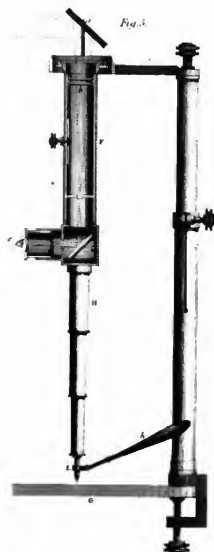


Fig. 5.



Fig. 4.

